

# THE American Journal of Education.

[NATIONAL SERIES,]

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## I. THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

### DOCUMENTARY HISTORY.

#### ORIGINAL ANNOUNCEMENT.

Issued as a Circular in May, 1855, and published in August following, with the first number, and again with a Postscript in January, 1856.

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In the great educational movement now going forward on this Continent, and especially throughout all the states in which the English language prevails, there has seemed for many years to the undersigned to exist, if not a demand, at least the want, not only of an American association of the friends of universal education, but of a series of publications, which should, on the one hand, embody the matured views and varied experience of wise statesmen, educators and teachers in perfecting the organization, administration, instruction and discipline of schools, of every grade, through a succession of years, under widely varying circumstances of government, society and religion; and on the other, should harmonize conflicting views, expose real deficiencies, excite to prudent and efficient action, and serve as a medium of free and frequent communication between the friends of education, in every portion of the great field.

In furtherance of these objects, a *Plan of Central Agency for the increase and diffusion* of knowledge on this subject was submitted to the American Association for the Advancement of Education, at its annual meeting in Washington in 1854. One feature of this plan was the publication of a Journal and Library of Education; the former to be issued in monthly or quarterly numbers, to embrace the current educational intelligence of the world, and the discussion of topics of immediate and pressing interest;—the latter to consist of a series of independent treatises, each devoted to the development of an important subject, or department, and embodying the reflections and experience of many minds, and the working and results of many institutions; and the whole, when complete, to constitute an Encyclopedia of Education. The plan was referred to a committee—considered and approved; and the Standing Committee were authorized to carry it into execution as far and as fast as the funds of the Association should admit. In the absence of any funds belonging to the Association, and of any pledge of pecuniary coöperation, on the part of

individuals, the Committee have not taken any steps to establish a central agency for the advancement of the objects for which the association was instituted, or felt authorized to provide for any publication beyond the proceedings of its last annual meeting. Under these circumstances, the undersigned has undertaken on his own responsibility, to carry out the original plan submitted by him, so far as relates to the publication both of the Journal, and the Library—relying on the annual subscription of individuals in different states, and interested in different allotments of the great field, who desire to be posted up in the current intelligence and discussion of schools and education, to meet the current expenses of the former; and on special contributions in aid of the latter, by persons or institutions interested in particular treatises, as their preparation shall be from time to time advanced and announced.

The First Number of the American Journal of Education will be issued in August, on terms which will be set forth by the publisher. As it will be devoted exclusively to the proceedings of the American Association for 1854, it will not present the usual variety and arrangement of topics, which will characterize the succeeding numbers.

The first treatise or volume of the Library of Education will be published in the course of 1856, under the following title, "*NATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES; or Contributions to the History and Improvement of Common or Public Schools, and other means of Popular Education in the several States,*" on terms which will be hereafter announced.

HARTFORD, CONN., May, 1855.

HENRY BARNARD.

P. S. After much of the copy for this Number of the American Journal of Education was in type, a conference was held with the Rev. Absalom Peters, D. D., in reference to the plan of an Educational Journal contemplated by him under the title of *The American College Review and Educational Journal*, which has led to the combination of our respective plans, and a joint editorship of *THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION AND COLLEGE REVIEW*.

NOTE TO NEW EDITION.—The agreement for the joint proprietorship and editorship of the American Journal of Education and College Review, having been dissolved by mutual consent and for mutual convenience, the undersigned has resumed the publication of the American Journal of Education on his original plan. A portion of the material intended for the first volume of the American Library of Education, will be published in the American Journal of Education.

Dr. PETERS will continue the publication of an educational periodical to which he has given the joint name.

H. B.

HARTFORD, January 7, 1856.

## PLAN OF CENTRAL AGENCY

### FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

The following Plan for "the Increase and Diffusion of Knowledge" of Education, and especially of Popular Education, and plans for its improvement through the Smithsonian Institution; or the American Association for the Advancement of Education was submitted to the Association by Hon. Henry Barnard.

The Institution [or Association] to appoint a secretary or agent; with a salary, and to furnish a room for an office and depository of educational documents and apparatus, and beyond this not to be liable for any expense.

Agenda by the secretary or agent:

1. To devote himself exclusively to the "increase and diffusion of knowledge" on the subject of education, and especially of the condition and means of improving Popular Education, and particularly
2. To answer all personal or written inquiries on the subject, and collect and make available for use, information as to all advances made in the theory and practice of education in any one State or country.
3. To attend, as far as may be consistent with other requisitions on his time, and without charge to the funds of the institution, [or Association] Educational Conventions of a national and State character, for the purpose of collecting and disseminating information.
4. To edit a publication, to be entitled the American Journal and Library of Education, on the plan set forth in the accompanying paper (A.)
5. To collect
  - (a) Plans and models of school-houses and furniture.
  - (b) Specimens of maps and other material aids of education.
  - (c) Educational reports and documents from other States and countries.
6. To institute a system of educational exchange between literary institutions in this and other countries.
7. To make arrangements, and effect, if practicable, at least one meeting or conference of the friends of educational improvement in Washington [or elsewhere] every year.
8. To submit annually a report in which shall be given a summary of the progress of education, in each State, and as far as practicable, in every country

#### A.

**PLAN OF PUBLICATION.**—A quarterly or monthly issue under the general title of the AMERICAN JOURNAL AND LIBRARY OF EDUCATION.

- I. A JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, to be issued in quarterly or monthly numbers, embracing articles on systems, institutions and methods of education, and the current intelligence of literature and education, and to make an octavo volume annually of at least 600 pages.
- II. A LIBRARY OF EDUCATION; to consist of a series of independent treatises on the following [among other] subjects, to be issued in parts, and to be forwarded with the Journal to subscribers; the several parts or treatises to make an octavo volume of at least 600 pages per year.

1. A CATALOGUE of the best publications on the organization, instruction and discipline of schools, of every grade, and on the principles of education, in the English, French, and German languages.

2. A HISTORY OF EDUCATION, ancient and modern.

3. AN ACCOUNT OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION IN EUROPE, based on the reports of Baché, Stowe, Mann, and others.

4. NATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES; or contributions to the history and improvement of common or public schools, and other institutions, means and agencies of popular education in the several States (B.)

5. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE; or the principles of construction, ventilation, warming, acoustics, seating, &c., applied to school rooms, lecture halls, and class rooms, with illustrations.

6. NORMAL SCHOOLS, and other institutions, means and agencies for the professional training and improvement of teachers.

7. SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION FOR LARGE CITIES AND VILLAGES, with an account of the schools and other means of popular education and recreation in the principal cities of Europe and in this country.

8. SYSTEM OF POPULAR EDUCATION FOR SPARSELY POPULATED DISTRICTS with an account of the schools in Norway and the agricultural portions of other countries.

9. SCHOOLS OF AGRICULTURE, and other means of advancing agricultural improvement.

10. SCHOOLS OF SCIENCE applied to the mechanic arts, civil engineering, &c.

11. SCHOOLS OF TRADE, NAVIGATION, COMMERCE, &c.

12. FEMALE EDUCATION, with an account of the best seminaries for females in this country and in Europe.

13. INSTITUTIONS FOR ORPHANS.

14. SCHOOLS OF INDUSTRY, or institutions for truant, idle or neglected children, before they have been convicted of crime.

15. REFORM SCHOOLS, or institutions for young criminals.

16. HOUSES OF REFUGE, for adult criminals.

17. SECONDARY EDUCATION, including 1. institutions preparatory to college, and 2. institutions preparatory to special schools of agriculture, engineering, trade, navigation, &c.

18. COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

19. SCHOOLS OF THEOLOGY, LAW, AND MEDICINE.

20. MILITARY AND NAVAL SCHOOLS.

21. SUPPLEMENTARY EDUCATION, including adult schools, evening schools, courses of popular lectures, debating classes, mechanic institutes, &c.

22. LIBRARIES, with hints for the purchase, arrangement, catalogueing, drawing and preservation of books, especially in libraries designed for popular use.

23. INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF AND DUMB, BLIND, AND IDIOTS.

24. SOCIETIES FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF SCIENCE, THE ARTS AND EDUCATION.

25. PUBLIC MUSEUMS AND GALLERIES.

26. PUBLIC GARDENS, and other sources of popular recreation.

27. EDUCATIONAL TRACTS, or a series of short essays on topics of immediate practical importance to teachers and school officers.

28. EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY, or the lives of distinguished educators and teachers.

29. EDUCATIONAL BENEFACTORS, or an account of the founders and benefactors of educational and scientific institutions.

30. SELF-EDUCATION; or hints for self-formation, with examples of the pursuit of knowledge under difficulties.

31. HOME EDUCATION; with illustrations drawn from the Family Training of different countries.

32. EDUCATIONAL NOMENCLATURE AND INDEX; or an explanation of words and terms used in describing the systems and institutions of education in different countries, with reference to the books where the subjects are discussed and treated of.

The Series, when complete, will constitute an ENCYCLOPEDIA OF EDUCATION.

## Preface.

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THE plan of a series of publications, embracing a periodical to be issued monthly or quarterly, devoted exclusively to the History, Discussion, and Statistics of Systems, Institutions, and Methods of Education, in different countries, with special reference to the condition and wants of our own, was formed by the undersigned in 1842, on the discontinuance of the first series of the Connecticut Common School Journal, commenced by him in August, 1838. In pursuance of this plan, several tracts and treatises on distinct topics connected with the organization, administration, and instruction of schools of different grades, and especially of public elementary schools, were prepared and published, and the material for others was collected by travel, correspondence, purchase, and exchange.

The further prosecution of the work was suspended in consequence of his accepting the office of Commissioner of Public Schools in Rhode Island, but was resumed in 1849, on his resigning the same. In 1850 the plan was brought without success before the American Institute of Instruction, at its annual meeting at Northampton, in connection with an agency for the promotion of education in New England. Having been induced to accept the office of Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut, for the purpose of reestablishing the educational policy which had been overthrown in 1842, the undersigned undertook to carry out his plan of publication by preparing a series of reports and documents, each devoted to one important subject, under authority of the Legislature. In this connection "Practical Illustrations of the Principles of School Architecture," "Normal Schools, and other Institutions, and Agencies for the Professional Training and Improvement of Teachers," and "National Education in Europe," were prepared and published. Finding that the anxieties and labors of office, combined with that general correspondence, and special research and reflection which the completion of the series required, were too much for his health, he resigned his office, and addressed himself to the execution of the latter. Failing to enlist either the Smithsonian Institution, or the American Association for the Advancement of Education, in the establishment of a Central Agency, the undersigned undertook, in March, 1855, on his own responsibility, the publication of a Journal and Library of Education. Arrangements were accordingly made in April, to print the first number of the American Journal of Education, in connection with the publication of the proceedings of the Association for 1854, to be issued on or before the first of August, 1855.

After much of the copy of Number One was in type, a conference was held with the Rev. Absalom Peters, D. D., who contemplated the publication of a periodical under the title of the American College Review, and Educational Magazine or Journal. This conference led to the combination of the two periodicals, and a joint editorship of the American Journal of Education and College Review. The first number was published in type, style and matter as prepared by the undersigned, with the adoption of the Prospectus already prepared by Dr. Peters for his magazine, modified, so as to merge the prominent feature of the College Review in the more comprehensive title of the American Journal of Education.

In the preparation of the second number, it became evident that two could not walk, or work together, unless they be agreed, and by mutual arrangement, and for mutual convenience, it was determined after the issue of that number, to discontinue the joint publication, leaving each party "the privilege of publishing an Educational Magazine, for which he was entitled to use the first and second number of the American Journal of Education and College Review, as number one and two of his work."

In the spirit and letter of this arrangement, as understood by him, the undersigned resumed the title and plan of his own Journal, and has completed the first volume by the publication of a number for March and for May, with this variation only, that he has given his subscribers more than he originally promised, and in the further prosecution of his work, shall include in the Journal much that he intended for chapters in some of the treatises which were to compose the Library of Education.

Should the Journal be sustained by a liberal subscription list, and should the health of the present editor admit of the requisite labor, it will be continued for a period of five years, or until the issue of ten volumes, conducted substantially on the plan of Volume I.

The editor will studiously avoid the insertion of all topics, or papers foreign to the great subject to which it is devoted, or of a single line or word calculated to injure intentionally the feelings of any faithful laborer in any allotment of the great field of American Education.

HENRY BARNARD.

HARTFORD, CONN., }  
MAY 1, 1856. }



## NEW SERIES.

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With the number for March, 1862, we shall commence a **NEW SERIES** of the **AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION**, and with a moderate encouragement from the thoughtful and active friends of educational improvement, we shall continue our quarterly issues, until they have reached at least six volumes. We shall make no change in the general plan of this periodical. It will be devoted as from the start, exclusively to the History, Biography, Science, Art, Systems, Institutions, and Statistics of Education in different countries, with special reference to the condition and wants of our own. We shall studiously avoid the insertion of all papers foreign to these great subjects, or of a single line or word calculated to injure the feelings of any faithful laborer in any allotment of the great field of American Education. We leave the work of controversy to those who have more taste for it than we have, and shall labor diligently on the following points.

I. The History of Pedagogy, or the successive developments of human culture, both theoretical and practical, under the varying circumstances of race, climate, religion and government, as drawn from special treatises of teachers and educators in different languages, or as embodied in the manners, literature and history of each people.

In the development of this great theme, embracing many ages, races, and governments, we propose, not in precise chronological or ethnological order, but in papers prepared, from time to time, as our studies or those of our co-laborers may suggest, to show, to an extent which has not yet been attempted in the English language, what has been accomplished in the family and schools, by parents, teachers and educators, for the systematic training of children and youth:—

1. In the Eastern nations, before the birth of Christ—in China, India, Persia, Egypt, and Palestine—by Confucius, by the Vedas and Buddha, by Zoroaster and the Ptolemies, by Moses, David, Solomon, and the Rabbi.

2. Among the Greeks, at Crete, Sparta and Athens, under the institutions of Pythagoras, Lycurgus, and Solon, by poets and philosophers and teachers, by Homer, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, and Plutarch.

3. Among the Romans, in the infancy, maturity and old age of Rome, by the didactics of Cato Seneca, Tacitus, the Plinys, Quintillian and Lucian.

4. Among modern nations as reached by the teachings of Christianity, in the gradual unfolding of the present received ideas of school organization, and of the principles and methods of instruction,—through (a) the peculiar organization and distinctive teaching of the early Christians; (b) the first popular school of the Christian Fathers, Chrysostom and Basil; (c) the Catechist schools of Clement and Origen; (d) the seminaries and cloister schools of Tertullian, Cyprian, Jerome and Austin; (e) the Monastic institutions of Benedict, Dominic and Francis; (f) the court schools and educational labors of Charlemagne and Alfred; (g) the modifications wrought by Arabic culture which followed the incursions of the Moors; (h) the rise and expansion of universities; (i) the demand of chivalry for a culture for man and woman distinct from that of the clergy, and of incorporated cities for schools independent of ecclesiastical authorities; (j) the revival of the languages, and the literature of Greece and Rome; (k) the long-protracted struggle between Humanism and Realism, or between, on the one hand, the study of languages for the purposes of general culture and the only preparation for professions in which language was the great instrument of study and influence, and on the other, the claims of Science, and of the realities surrounding every one, and with which every one has to do every day, in the affairs of peace or war; (l) and the gradual extension and expansion of the grand idea of universal education—of the education of every human being, and of every faculty of every human being, according to the circumstances and capabilities of each. While thus aiming to give in each number, contributions to the History of Pedagogy and the internal economy of schools, we hope in this series to complete our survey of—

II. Systems of National Education, and especially an account of Public Schools and other Means of Popular Education in each of the United States, and of all other governments on the American Continent.

III. The history and present condition of Normal Schools and other special institutions and agencies for the Professional Training and Improvement of Teachers.

IV. The organization and characteristic features of Polytechnic Schools, and other institutions for the education of persons destined for other pursuits than those of Law, Medicine and Theology, including a full account of Military Schools.

V. The history and courses of study of the oldest and best Colleges and Universities in different countries.

VI. The life and services of many Teachers, Promoters and Benefactors of Education, whose labors or benefactions are associated with the foundation and development of institutions, systems, and methods of instruction.

HENRY BARNARD.

Hartford, March, 1862.

# CLASSIFIED INDEX

TO

BARNARD'S AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION.

VOLUMES I. TO XVI.

## CLASSIFICATION OF SUBJECTS.

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## II. EDUCATION:—A NATIONAL INTEREST.

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### HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

In the ordinance of the Congress of the Confederation in 1785, respecting "the disposing of lands in the Western territory," "section sixteen of every township" was reserved for the maintenance of public schools.

The ordinance of 1787, "for the government of the Territory northwest of the river Ohio," confirmed the ordinance of 1785, and declared "that religion, morality and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged."

The Constitution of the United States, after setting forth in the Preamble in words of sublime import the national objects for which the people of the United States had ordained this fundamental law, expressly grants to Congress the power "to dispose" of the public lands and other property—"to exercise exclusive jurisdiction" over the district to be ceded as the seat of government—and "to lay and collect taxes, &c., to provide for the common defense and general welfare."

In the Convention of 1787, which framed the Constitution, Mr. Charles Pinckney, of South Carolina, on the 29th of May and the 18th of August, and subsequently Mr. Madison, of Virginia, submitted propositions "to provide for the establishment of a National University at the seat of government," "for the advancement of useful knowledge," "and the promotion of agriculture, commerce, trades and manufactures." On the 14th of September, both of these delegates moved to insert in the list of powers vested in Congress, "to establish a university in which no preference or distinction should be allowed on account of religion." This motion was opposed by Gouverneur Morris, of New York, and was lost, as reported by Mr. Madison, expressly on the ground that the power to establish such a university was included in the grant of exclusive legislation over the district in which the government should be located. And as we learn from other sources, and from

the subsequent recommendations by President Washington, the power to encourage agriculture, trade, manufactures, and education, was understood by him, and other statesmen, to be included in the first clause of the enumerated powers of Congress "to lay taxes and to provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States."

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

Fresh from the discussions of the Convention which framed the Constitution, of which he was the presiding officer, and called by the unanimous voice of his countrymen to inaugurate, as its chief executive, the national government, George Washington, in his first formal recommendation of special measures to both Houses of Congress, on the 8th of January, 1790, after commending further legislation for an efficient and uniform plan of military organization, as well as of a national judiciary, calls attention to the necessity of "uniformity in the currency, weights and measures;" "the advancement of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures," "the effectual encouragement, as well as to the introduction of new and useful inventions from abroad, as to the exertions of skill and genius in producing them at home;" "facilitating the intercourse between the distant parts of our country by a due attention to the post-office, and post-roads"—did not hesitate to add:—

Nor am I less persuaded, that you will agree with me in opinion, that there is nothing which can better deserve your patronage than the promotion of science and literature. Knowledge is in every country the surest basis of public happiness. In one, in which the measures of government receive their impression so immediately from the sense of the community, as in ours, it is proportionably essential. To the security of a free constitution it contributes in various ways; by convincing those who are intrusted with the public administration, that every valuable end of government is best answered by the enlightened confidence of the people; and by teaching the people themselves to know and to value their own rights; to discern and provide against invasions of them; to distinguish between oppression and the necessary exercise of lawful authority, between burdens proceeding from a disregard to their convenience and those resulting from the inevitable exigencies of society; to discriminate the spirit of liberty from that of licentiousness, cherishing the first, avoiding the last, and uniting a speedy but temperate vigilance against encroachments, with an inviolable respect for the laws.

Whether this desirable object will be the best promoted by affording aid to seminaries of learning already established, by the institution of a national university, or by any other expedients, will be well worthy of a place in the deliberations of the legislature.

In his speech to both Houses of Congress, December 7th, 1796, after referring to the measures adopted for the encouragement of manufactures, and urging immediate attention to agriculture as a matter of individual and national welfare—and especially of constituting a board (or as has since been done, by a National Depart-

ment) "charged with collecting and diffusing information, and enabled by premiums and small pecuniary aids to encourage, and assist a spirit of discovery and improvement. This species of establishment contributes doubly to the increase of improvement, by stimulating to enterprise and experiment, and by drawing to a common center the results everywhere of individual skill and observation, and spreading them thence over the whole nation"—he again returns to the expediency of establishing a national university, and also a military academy; and proceeds:—

The assembly to which I address myself, is too enlightened not to be fully sensible how much a flourishing state of the arts and sciences contributes to national prosperity and reputation. True it is, that our country contains many seminaries of learning highly respectable and useful; but the funds upon which they rest are too narrow to command the ablest professors, in the different departments of liberal knowledge for the institution contemplated, though they would be excellent auxiliaries.

Amongst the motives to such an institution, the assimilation of the principles, opinions and manners of our countrymen, by the common education of a portion of our youth from every quarter, well deserves attention. The more homogeneous our citizens can be made in these particulars, the greater will be our prospect of permanent union; and a primary object of such a national institution should be, the education of our youth in the science of government. In a republic, what species of knowledge can be equally important, and what duty more pressing in its legislation, than to patronize a plan of communicating it to those who are to be the future guardians of the liberties of the country.

In a letter addressed to Alexander Hamilton, from Philadelphia, September 1st, 1796, referring to the topics which he wished to introduce in his Farewell Address, a draft of which he had enclosed in a former letter, Washington regrets "that another subject (which in my estimation is of interesting concern to the well-being of this country) was not touched upon also;"—

I mean education generally, as one of the surest means of enlightening and giving just ways of thinking to our citizens, but particularly the establishment of a university; where the youth from all parts of the United States might receive the polish of erudition in the arts, sciences, and belles-lettres; and where those who were disposed to run a political course might not only be instructed in the theory and principles, but (this seminary being at the seat of the general government, where the legislature would be in session half the year, and the interests and politics of the nation of course would be discussed,) they would lay the surest foundation for the practical part also.

But that which would render it of the highest importance, in my opinion, is, that at the juvenile period of life, when friendships are formed, and habits established, that will stick by one, the youth, or young men from different parts of the United States would be assembled together, and would by degrees discover that there was not that cause for those jealousies and prejudices which one part of the Union had imbibed against another part:—of course sentiments of more liberality in the general policy of the country would result from it. What but mixing of people from different parts of the United States during the war rubbed off those impressions? A century, in the ordinary intercourse, would not have accomplished what the seven years' association in arms did; but that ceasing, prejudices are beginning to revive again, and never will be eradicated so effectually by any other means as the intimate intercourse of characters in early life,—who in all probability will be at the head of the counsels of this country in a more advanced stage of it.

To show that this is no new idea of mine, I may appeal to my early communications to Congress; and to prove how seriously I have reflected on it since, and how well disposed I have been, and still am, to contribute my aid toward carrying the measure into effect, I enclose you the extract of a letter from me to the Governor of Virginia, and a copy of the resolves of the legislature of that State in consequence thereof.

I have not the smallest doubt that this donation (when the navigation is in complete operation, which it certainly will be in less than two years,) will amount to £1200 or £1500 sterling a year, and become a rapidly increasing fund. The proprietors of the Federal City have talked of doing something handsome towards it likewise; and if Congress would appropriate some of the western lands to the same uses, funds sufficient, and of the most permanent and increasing sort, might be so established as to invite the ablest professors in Europe to conduct it.

In a letter to Hamilton, dated Sept. 6, 1796, Washington adds:

If you think the idea of a university had better be reserved for the speech at the opening of the session, I am content to defer the communication of it until that period; but even in that case, I would pray you, as soon as convenient, to make a draft for the occasion, predicated on the ideas with which you have been furnished: looking at the same time at what was said on this head in my *second* speech to the *first* Congress, merely with a view to see what was said on the subject at that time; and this, you will perceive, was not so much to the point as I want to express now, though it may, if proper, be glanced at, to show that the subject had caught my attention early.

I much question whether a recommendation of this measure to the legislature will have a better effect *now* than *formerly*. It may show, indeed, my sense of its importance, and that is a sufficient inducement with *me* to bring the matter before the public in some shape or another at the close of my political life. My object in proposing to insert it when I did, was to set the *people* ruminating on the importance of the measure, as the most likely means of bringing it to pass.

In his Farewell Address to the people of the United States, dated September 17, 1796, Washington gave utterance to that noble sentiment which has passed into an axiom of political philosophy:—

Promote, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened.

Washington did not confine the expressions of his interest in education, and especially the establishment of a national university, to his official communications to Congress and to the people of the United States. In a letter addressed to Mr. Adams, the Vice President, dated Nov. 27, 1794, on a proposition communicated by Mr. Jefferson, for “transplanting the members entire of the University of Geneva to America,” there is the following passage:—

That a national university in this country is a thing to be desired, has always been my decided opinion; and the appropriation of ground and funds for it in the Federal City has long been contemplated and talked of; but how far matured, or how far the transporting of an entire seminary of foreigners, who may not understand our language, can be assimilated therein, is more than I am prepared to give an opinion upon; or, indeed, how far funds in either case are attainable.

On 28th of January, 1795, Washington addressed from Philadelphia, the following letter to the Commissioners of the Federal District:—



GENTLEMEN—A plan for the establishment of a university in the Federal City has frequently been the subject of conversation; but, in what manner it is proposed to commence this important institution, on how extensive a scale, the means by which it is to be effected, how it is to be supported, or what progress is made in it, are matters altogether unknown to me.

It has always been a source of serious reflection and sincere regret with me, that the youth of the United States should be sent to foreign countries for the purpose of education. Although there are doubtless many, under these circumstances, who escape the danger of contracting principles unfavorable to republican government, yet we ought to deprecate the hazard attending ardent and susceptible minds, from being too strongly and too early prepossessed in favor of other political systems, before they are capable of appreciating their own.

For this reason I have greatly wished to see a plan adopted, by which the arts, sciences, and belles-lettres could be taught in their fullest extent, thereby embracing all the advantages of European tuition, with the means of acquiring the liberal knowledge, which is necessary to qualify our citizens for the exigencies of public as well as private life; and (which with me is a consideration of great magnitude) by assembling the youth from the different parts of this rising republic, contributing from their intercourse and interchange of information to the removal of prejudices, which might perhaps sometimes arise from local circumstances.

The Federal City, from its centrality and the advantages which in other respects it must have over any other place in the United States, ought to be preferred, as a proper site for such a university. And if a plan can be adopted upon a scale as extensive as I have described, and the execution of it should commence under favorable auspices in a reasonable time, with a fair prospect of success, I will grant in perpetuity fifty shares in the navigation of the Potomac River towards the endowment of it.

What annuity will arise from these fifty shares, when the navigation is in full operation, can at this time be only conjectured; and those, who are acquainted with it, can form as good a judgment as myself.

As the design of this university has assumed no form with which I am acquainted, and as I am equally ignorant who the persons are, who have taken or are disposed to take the maturing of the plan upon themselves, I have been at a loss to whom I should make this communication of my intentions. If the Commissioners of the Federal City have any particular agency in bringing the matter forward, then the information, which I now give to them, is in its proper course. If, on the other hand, they have no more to do in it than others, who may be desirous of seeing so important a measure carried into effect, they will be so good as to excuse my using them as the medium for disclosing these my intentions; because it appears necessary, that the funds for the establishment and support of the institution should be known to the promoters of it; and I see no mode more eligible for announcing my purpose.

In February, 1795, Mr. Jefferson addressed from Monticello a letter to President Washington, in reference to a proposition of M. D'Ivernois, and the Professors of the University of Geneva, Switzerland, to remove in a body to the United States, and establish here a University, "comprehending a College of Languages, preparatory to the principal one of Sciences, and also a third one for the gratuitous teaching of reading and writing to the poor." Mr. Jefferson, in view of a previous communication from Washington, as to his intention to aid by testamentary devise, the establishment of a National University, thinks the acceptance of this proposition, with modifications, will give "the institution at the outset such *éclat*, and such solid advantages, as would insure a very general concurrence

to it of the youths from all our States, and probably from other parts of America."

The composition of the academy can not be settled there. It must be adapted to our circumstances, and can therefore only be fixed between them and persons here acquainted with those circumstances, and conferring for the purpose after their arrival here. For a country so marked for agriculture as ours, I should think no professorship so important as one not mentioned by them, a professor of agriculture, who, before the students should leave college, should carry them through a course of lectures on the principles and practice of agriculture; and that this professor should come from no country but England. Indeed I should mark Young as the man to be obtained. These, however, are modifications to be left till their arrival here.

To this letter, Washington replied on the 15th of March, 1795:—

I had little hesitation in giving the Federal City a preference over all other places for the institution, for the following reasons. First, on account of its being the permanent seat of the government of this Union, and where the laws and policy of it must be better understood than in any local part thereof. Secondly, because of its centrality. Thirdly, because one half (or near it) of the District of Columbia is within the Commonwealth of Virginia, and the whole of the State not inconvenient thereto. Fourthly, because, as a part of the endowment, it would be useful, but alone would be inadequate to the end. Fifthly, because many advantages, I conceive, would result from the jurisdiction which the general government will have over it, which no other spot would possess. And, lastly, as this seminary is contemplated for the completion of education and study of the sciences, not for boys in their rudiments, it will afford the students an opportunity of attending the debates in Congress, and thereby becoming more liberally and better acquainted with the principles of law and government.

My judgment and my wishes point equally strong to the application of the James River shares to the same subject at the same place; but, considering the source from whence they were derived, I have, in a letter I am writing to the executive of Virginia on this subject, left the application of them to a seminary within the State, to be located by the legislature.

Hence you will perceive, that I have in a degree anticipated your proposition. I was restrained from going the whole length of the suggestion by the following considerations. First, I did not know to what extent or when any plan would be so matured for the establishment of a university, as would enable any assurances to be given to the application of M. D'Ivernois. Secondly, the propriety of transplanting the professors in a body might be questioned for several reasons; among others, because they might not be all good characters, nor all sufficiently acquainted with our language. And again, having been at variance with the leveling party of their own country, the measure might be considered as an aristocratical movement by more than those, who, without any just cause that I can discover, are continually sounding the bell of aristocracy. And, thirdly, because it might preclude some of the first professors in other countries from a participation, among whom some of the most celebrated characters in Scotland, in this line, might be obtained.

My letter to the commissioners has bound me to the fulfillment of what is therein engaged; and if the Legislature of Virginia, on considering the subject, should view it in the same light as I do, the James River shares will be added thereto; for I think one good institution of this sort is to be preferred to two imperfect ones, which, without other aid than the shares in both navigations, is more likely to fall through, than to succeed upon the plan I contemplate; which is, in a few words, to supersede the necessity of sending the youth of this country abroad for the purpose of education, where too often principles and habits unfriendly to republican government are imbibed, and not easily discarded. Instituting such a one of our own, as will answer the end, and associating them in the same seminary, will contribute to wear off those prejudices and unreasonable jealousies, which prevent or weaken friendships and impair the harmony of the Union.

On the 16th of March, 1795, Washington addressed the following letter to Gov. Brooke of Virginia:—

SIR:—Ever since the General Assembly of Virginia were pleased to submit to my disposal fifty shares in the Potomac, and one hundred in the James River Company, it has been my anxious desire to appropriate them to an object most worthy of public regard.

It is with indescribable regret, that I have seen the youth of the United States migrating to foreign countries, in order to acquire the higher branches of erudition, and to obtain a knowledge of the sciences. Although it would be injustice to many to pronounce the certainty of their imbibing maxims not congenial with republicanism, it must nevertheless be admitted, that a serious danger is encountered by sending abroad among other political systems those who have not well learned the value of their own.

The time is therefore come, when a plan of universal education ought to be adopted in the United States. Not only do the exigencies of public and private life demand it, but, if it should ever be apprehended, that prejudice would be entertained in one part of the Union against another, an efficacious remedy will be, to assemble the youth of every part under such circumstances as will, by the freedom of intercourse and collision of sentiment, give to their minds the direction of truth, philanthropy, and mutual conciliation.

It has been represented, that a university corresponding with these ideas is contemplated to be built in the Federal City, and that it will receive considerable endowments. This position is so eligible from its centrality, so convenient to Virginia, by whose legislature the shares were granted and in which part of the Federal District stands, and combines so many other conveniences, that I have determined to vest the Potomac shares in that university.

Presuming it to be more agreeable to the General Assembly of Virginia, that the shares in the James River Company should be reserved for a similar object in some part of that State, I intend to allot them for a seminary to be erected at such place as they shall deem most proper. I am disposed to believe, that a seminary of learning upon an enlarged plan, but yet not coming up to the full idea of a university, is an institution to be preferred for the position which is to be chosen. The students, who wish to pursue the whole range of science, may pass with advantage from the seminary to the university, and the former by a due relation may be rendered coöperative with the latter.

I can not however dissemble my opinion, that if all the shares were conferred on a university, it would become far more important, than when they are divided; and I have been constrained from centering them in the same place, merely by my anxiety to reconcile a particular attention to Virginia with a great good, in which she will abundantly share in common with the rest of the United States.

I must beg the favor of your Excellency to lay this letter before that honorable body, at their next session, in order that I may appropriate the James River shares to the place which they may prefer. They will at the same time again accept my acknowledgments for the opportunity, with which they have favored me, of attempting to supply so important a desideratum in the United States as a university adequate to our necessity, and a preparatory seminary.

This letter was accordingly communicated to the Assembly at their next session, when the following resolves were passed:—

IN THE HOUSE OF DELEGATES, *December 1st, 1795.*

Whereas the migration of American youth to foreign countries, for the completion of their education, exposes them to the danger of imbibing political prejudices disadvantageous to their own republican forms of government, and ought therefore to be rendered unnecessary and avoided;

*Resolved*, that the plan contemplated of erecting a university in the Federal City, where the youth of the several States may be assembled, and their course of education finished, deserves the countenance and support of each State.

And whereas, when the General Assembly presented sundry shares in the James River and Potomac Companies to George Washington, as a small token

of their gratitude for the great, eminent, and unrivaled services he had rendered to this Commonwealth, to the United States, and the world at large, in support of the principles of liberty and equal government, it was their wish and desire that he should appropriate them as he might think best; and whereas, the present General Assembly retain the same high sense of his virtues, wisdom, and patriotism;

*Resolved*, therefore, that the appropriation by the said George Washington of the aforesaid shares in the Potomac Company to the university, intended to be erected in the Federal City, is made in a manner most worthy of public regard, and of the approbation of this Commonwealth.

*Resolved*, also, that he be requested to appropriate the aforesaid shares in the James River Company to a seminary at such place in the upper country, as he may deem most convenient to a majority of the inhabitants thereof.

The following are provisions of Washington's last Will:—

—As it has always been a source of serious regret with me to see the youth of these United States sent to foreign countries for the purposes of education, often before their minds were formed, or they had imbibed any adequate ideas of the happiness of their own; contracting, too frequently, not only habits of dissipation and extravagance, but *principles unfriendly to republican government, and to the true and genuine liberties of mankind*, which thereafter are rarely overcome; for these reasons it has been my ardent wish to see a plan devised on a liberal scale, which would have a tendency to spread systematic ideas through all parts of this rising empire, thereby to do away local attachments and State prejudices, as far as the nature of things would, or indeed ought to admit, from our national councils. Looking anxiously forward to the accomplishment of so desirable an object as this is (in my estimation), my mind has not been able to contemplate any plan more likely to affect the measure, than the establishment of a University in a central part of the United States, to which youths of fortune and talents from all parts thereof may be sent for the completion of their education in all branches of polite literature, in arts and sciences, in acquiring knowledge in the principles of politics and good government; and, as a matter of infinite importance in my judgment, by associating with each other, and forming friendships in juvenile years, be enabled to free themselves in a proper degree from those local prejudices and habitual jealousies, which have just been mentioned, and which, when carried to excess, are never-failing sources of disquietude to the public mind, and pregnant with mischievous consequences to the country. Under these impressions,

I give and bequeath in perpetuity the fifty shares which I hold in the Potomac Company (under the aforesaid acts of the Legislature of Virginia,) towards the endowment of a university to be established within the limits of the District of Columbia, under the auspices of the general government, if that government should incline to extend a fostering hand towards it; and until such seminary is established, and the funds arising on these shares be required for its support, my further will and desire is, that the profit accruing therefrom shall, whenever the dividends are made, be laid out in purchasing stock in the bank of Columbia, or some other bank, at the discretion of my executors, or by the treasurer of the United States for the time being, under the direction of Congress, provided that honorable body should patronize the measure; and the dividends proceeding therefrom are to be vested in more stock, and so on until a sum adequate to the accomplishment of the object is obtained, of which I have not the smallest doubt before many years pass away, even if no aid or encouragement is given by legislative authority, or from any other source.

The hundred shares, which I hold in the James River Company, I have given, and now confirm, in perpetuity, to and for the use and benefit of Liberty Hall Academy, in the county of Rockbridge, in the commonwealth of Virginia.

We shall continue this Historical Development of the National Aspects of Education through successive administrations, down to the action of Congress at its last session—with a notice of which we introduce a speech from Gen. Garfield on the subject.

## II. EDUCATION—A NATIONAL INTEREST.

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SPEECH OF\* JAMES A. GARFIELD OF OHIO, IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, JUNE 8TH, 1866, ON A BILL "TO ESTABLISH A NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION," REPORTED BY THE SELECT COMMITTEE\* ON THE MEMORIAL OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS.

At the conclusion of a general discussion of the bill, the previous question upon the bill and the pending amendments was demanded and seconded, and the main question ordered;

Mr. GARFIELD spoke as follows: I did intend to make a somewhat elaborate statement of the reasons why the select committee recommended the passage of this bill; but I know the anxiety that many gentlemen feel to have this debate concluded, and to allow the private bills now on the calendar and set for this day, to be disposed of, and to complete as soon as possible the work of this session. I will, therefore, abandon my original purpose and restrict myself to a brief statement of a few leading points in the argument, and leave the decision with the House. I hope this waiving of a full discussion of the bill will not be construed into a confession that it is inferior in importance to any measure before the House; for I know of none that has a nobler object, or that more vitally affects the future of this nation.

I first ask the House to consider the magnitude of the interests involved in this bill. The very attempt to discover the amount of pecuniary and personal interest we have in our schools shows the necessity of such a law as is here proposed. I have searched in vain for any complete or reliable statistics showing the educational condition of the whole country. The estimates I have made are gathered from various sources and can only be approximately correct. I am satisfied, however, that they are far below the truth.

Even by the incomplete and imperfect educational statistics of the

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\*The Committee consisted of Garfield of Ohio, Patterson of New Hampshire, Boutwell of Massachusetts, Donnelly of Minnesota, Moulton of Illinois, Goodyear of New York, and Randall, of Pennsylvania.

Census Bureau, it appears that in 1860, there were in the United States 115,224 common schools, 500,000 school officers, 150,241 teachers, and 5,477,037 scholars; thus showing that more than six millions of the people of the United States are directly engaged in the work of education.

Not only has this large proportion of our population been thus engaged, but the Congress of the United States has given fifty-three million acres of public lands to fourteen States and Territories of the Union for the support of schools. In the old ordinance of 1785, it was provided that one section of every township, one thirty-sixth of all the public lands of the United States, should be set apart and held forever sacred to the support of the schools of the country. In the ordinance of 1787, it was declared that "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

It is estimated that at least \$50,000,000 have been given in the United States by private individuals for the support of schools. We have thus an interest, even pecuniarily considered, hardly second to any other. We have tolerably complete school statistics from only seventeen States of the Union.

Our Congressional Library contains no educational reports whatever from the remaining nineteen. In those seventeen States there are 90,835 schools, 190,000 teachers, 5,107,285 pupils, and \$34,000,000 annually appropriated by the Legislatures for the support and maintenance of common schools. Notwithstanding the great expenditures entailed upon them during five years of war, they raised by taxation \$34,000,000 annually for the support of common schools. In several States of the Union more than fifty per cent. of all the tax, imposed for State purposes, is for the support of common schools. And yet, gentlemen are impatient because we wish to occupy a short time in considering this bill!

I will not trouble the House by repeating common-places so familiar to every gentleman here, as that our system of government is based upon the intelligence of the people. But I wish to suggest that there never has been a time when all our educational forces should be in such perfect activity as at the present day.

Ignorance—stolid ignorance—is not our most dangerous enemy. There is very little of that kind of ignorance among the white population of this country.

In the Old World, among the despotic governments of Europe, the



great disfranchised class—the pariahs of political and social life—are indeed ignorant, mere inert masses, moved upon and controlled by the intelligent and cultivated aristocracy. Any unrepresented and hopelessly disfranchised class in a government will inevitably be struck with intellectual paralysis. Our late slaves afford a sad illustration.

But among the represented and voting classes of this country, where all are equal before the law, and every man is a political power for good or evil, there is but little of the inertia of ignorance. The alternatives are not education or no education; but shall the power of the citizen be directed aright towards industry, liberty, and patriotism, or, under the baneful influence of false theories and evil influences, shall it lead him continually downward till it ruin both him and the government?

If he is not educated in the school of virtue and integrity he will be educated in the school of vice and iniquity. We are, therefore, afloat on the sweeping current; we must make head against it, or we shall go down with it to the saddest of destinies.

According to the census of 1860 there were 1,218,311 free white inhabitants of the United States over twenty-one years of age who could not read nor write, and 871,418 of those were American-born citizens. One-third of a million of people are being annually thrown upon our shores from the Old World, a large per cent. of whom are uneducated, and the gloomy total has been swelled by the 4,000,000 slaves admitted to citizenship by the events of the war.

Such, Sir, is the immense force which we must now confront by the genius of our institutions and the light of our civilization. How shall it be done? An American citizen can give but one answer. We must pour upon them all the light of our public schools. We must make them intelligent, industrious, patriotic citizens, or they will drag us and our children down to their level. Does not this question rise to the full height of national importance and demand the best efforts of statesmanship to adjust it? Mr. Mann has well said:

“That legislators and rulers are responsible.

“In our country and in our times no man is worthy the honored name of a statesman who does not include the highest practicable education of the people in all of his plans of administration.

“He may have eloquence, he may have a knowledge of all history, diplomacy, jurisprudence, and by these he may claim, in other countries, the elevated rank of a statesman, but unless he speaks, plans, labors at all times and in all places for the culture and edification of the whole people, he is not, he cannot be an American statesman.”

Gentlemen who have discussed the bill this morning tell us that it will result in great expense to the government. Whether an enterprise is expensive or not is altogether a relative question, to be determined by the importance of its object.

Now, what have we done as a nation in the way of expenses? In 1832 we organized a Coast Survey Bureau, and have expended millions upon it. Its officers have triangulated thousands of miles of our coasts, have made soundings of all our bays and harbors, and carefully mapped the shoals, breakers, and coast lines from our northern boundary on the Atlantic to the extreme northern boundary on the Pacific coast. They have established eight hundred tidal stations to observe the fluctuations of the tides. We have expended vast sums in order perfectly to know the topography of our coasts, lakes and rivers, that we might make navigation more safe. Is it of no consequence that we explore the boundaries of that wonderful intellectual empire which incloses within its domain the fate of succeeding generations, and of this republic? The children of to-day will be the architects of our country's destiny in 1900.

We have established an Astronomical Observatory where the movements of the stars are watched, latitude and longitude calculated, and chronometers regulated for the benefit of navigation. For this Observatory we pay one third of a million per annum. Is it of no consequence that we observe the movements of those intellectual lights which shall, in the time to come, be guiding stars in our national firmament?

We have established a Light-House Board who are employing all the aids of science, to discover the best modes of regulating the beacons upon our shores; they are placing buoys as way-marks to guide ships safely into our harbors. Will you not create a light-house board to set up beacons for the coming generation, not as lights to the eye, but to the mind and heart, that shall lead them safely in the perilous voyage of life, and enable them to transmit the blessings of liberty to those who shall come after them?

We have set on foot a score of expeditions to explore the mountains and valleys, the lakes and rivers of this and other countries. We have expended money without stint to explore the Amazon and the Jordan, Chili and Japan, the gold shores of the Colorado and the copper cliffs of Lake Superior; to gather and publish the great facts of science, and to exhibit the material resources of physical nature. Will you refuse the pitiful sum of \$13,000 to collect and record the intellectual resources of this country, the elements that lie behind all material wealth and make it either a curse or a blessing?

We have paid three-quarters of a million dollars for the survey of the route for the Pacific railroad, and have published the results at a great cost in thirteen quarto volumes, with accompanying maps and charts. The money for these purposes was freely expended, and now, when it is proposed to appropriate \$13,000 to aid in increasing the intelligence of those who will use that great continental highway when it is completed, we are reminded of our debts, and warned against increasing our expenditures. It is difficult to treat such an objection with the respect that always is due in this hall of legislation.

We have established a Patent Office where are annually accumulated thousands of models of new machinery invented by our people. Will you make no expenditure for the benefit of the intelligence that shall stand behind that machinery and be its controller? Will you bestow all your favors upon the engine, and ignore the engineer? I will not insult the intelligence of this House by waiting to prove that money paid for education is the most economical of all expenditure; that it is cheaper to reduce crime than to build jails; that school houses are less expensive than rebellions. A tenth of our national debt expended in public education fifty years ago would have saved us the blood and treasure of the late war. A far less sum may save our children from a still greater calamity.

We expend hundreds of thousands annually to promote the agricultural interests of the country; to introduce the best methods in husbandry. Is it not of more consequence to do something for the farmer of the future than for the farm of to-day?

As man is more precious than soil, as the immortal spirit is nobler than the clod it animates, so is the object of this bill more important than any mere pecuniary interest.

The genius of our government does not allow us to establish a compulsory system of education, as is done in some of the countries of Europe. There are States in this Union, however, which have adopted a compulsory system, and perhaps that is well. It is for each State to determine. A distinguished gentleman from Rhode Island told me lately that it is now the law in that State that every child within its borders shall attend school, and that every vagrant child shall be taken in charge by the authorities and sent to school. It may be well for other States to pursue the same course; but probably the general government can do nothing of the sort. Whether it has the right of compulsory control or not, we propose none in this bill.

But we do propose to use that power, so effective in this country, of letting in light on subjects, and holding them up to the verdict of

public opinion. If it could be published annually from this capitol, through every school district of the United States, that there are States in the Union that have no system of common schools; and if their records could be placed beside the records of such States as Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio and other States that have a common school system, the mere statement of the fact would rouse their energies, and compel them for shame to educate their children. It would shame out of their delinquency all the delinquent States.

Mr. Speaker, if I were called upon to-day to point to that in my own State of which I am most proud, I would not point to any of the flaming lines of her military record, to the heroic men and the brilliant officers she gave to the late contest: I would not point to any of her leading men of the past or the present; but I would point to her common schools; I would point to the honorable fact that in the great struggle of five years through which we have just passed, she has expended \$12,000,000 for the support of her public schools. I do not include in that amount the sums expended upon our higher institutions of learning. I would point to the fact that fifty-two per cent of the taxation of Ohio for the last five years, aside from the war tax and the tax for the payment of her public debt, has been for the support of her schools. I would point to the schools of Cincinnati, Cleveland, Toledo, and other cities of the State, if I desired a stranger to see the glory of Ohio. I would point to the thirteen thousand school houses and the seven hundred thousand pupils in the schools of Ohio. I would point to the \$3,000,000 she has paid for schools during the last year alone. This, in my judgment, is the proper gauge by which to measure the progress and glory of States.

Gentlemen tell us there is no need of this bill—the States are doing well enough now. Do they know through what a struggle every State has come up, that has secured a good system of common schools. Let me illustrate this by the example of Pennsylvania. Notwithstanding the early declaration of William Penn—

“That which makes a good constitution must keep it, namely, men of wisdom and virtue; qualities that because they descend not with worldly inheritance must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education of youth, for which spare no cost, for by such parsimony all that is saved is lost,”

notwithstanding that wise master builder incorporated this sentiment in his “framework of government” and made it the duty of the governor and council “to establish and support public schools;” notwithstanding Benjamin Franklin, from the first hour he became a

citizen of Pennsylvania, inculcated the value of useful knowledge to every human being in every walk of life, and by his personal and pecuniary effort did establish schools and a college for Philadelphia; notwithstanding the constitution of Pennsylvania made it obligatory upon the Legislature to foster the education of the citizens; notwithstanding all this, it was not till 1833-34 that a system of common schools, supported in part by taxation of property of the State, for the common benefit of all the children of the State, was established by law; and although the law was passed by an almost unanimous vote of both branches of the Legislature, so foreign was the idea of public schools to the habits of the people, so odious was the idea of taxation for this purpose, that even the poor who were to be specially benefited, were so deluded by political demagogues as to clamor for its repeal.

Many members who voted for the law lost their nominations, and others, although nominated, lost their election. Some were weak enough to pledge themselves to a repeal of the law; and in the session of 1835 there was an almost certain prospect of its repeal and the adoption in its place of an odious and limited provision for educating the children of the poor by themselves. In the darkest hour of the debate, when the hearts of the original friends of the system were failing from fear, there rose on the floor of the House one of its early champions, one who, though not a native of the State, felt the disgrace which the repeal of this law would inflict, like a knife in his bosom; one who, though no kith or kin of his would be benefited by the operations of the system, and though he should share its burdens, he would only partake with every citizen in its blessings; one who had voted for the original law although introduced by his political opponents, and who had defended and gloried in his vote before an angry and unwilling constituency; this man, then in the beginning of his public career, threw himself into the conflict, and by his earnest and brave eloquence saved the law, and gave a noble system of common schools to Pennsylvania.

I doubt if, at this hour, after the thirty years crowded full of successful labors at the bar, before the people, and in halls of legislation, the venerable and distinguished member [Mr. STEVENS], who now represents a portion of the same State in this House, can recall any speech of his life with half the pleasure he does that, for no measure with which his name has been connected is so fraught with blessings to hundreds of thousands of children, and to homes innumerable. I hold in my hand a copy of his brave speech, and I ask the clerk to read the passages I have marked:

"I am comparatively a stranger among you, born in another, in a distant State; no parent or kindred of mine did, does, or probably ever will dwell within your borders. I have none of those strong cords to bind me to your honor and your interest; yet, if there is any one thing on earth which I ardently desire above all others, it is to see Pennsylvania standing up in her intellectual, as she confessedly does in her physical resources, high above all her confederate rivals. How shameful then, would it be for these her native sons, to feel less so, when the dust of their ancestors is mingled with her soil, their friends and relatives enjoy her present prosperity, and their descendants, for long ages to come, will partake of her happiness or misery, her glory or her infamy!" \* \*

"In giving this law to posterity, you act the part of the philanthropist, by bestowing upon the poor as well as the rich, the greatest earthly boon which they are capable of receiving; you act the part of the philosopher by pointing, if you do not lead them, up the hill of science; you act the part of the hero, if it be true, as you say, that popular vengeance follows close upon your footsteps. Here then, if you wish true popularity, is a theater on which you may acquire it." \* \* \*

"Let all, therefore, who would sustain the character of the philosopher or philanthropist, sustain this law. Those who would add thereto the glory of the hero, can acquire it here; for, in the present state of feeling in Pennsylvania, I am willing to admit that but little less dangerous to the public man is the war-club and battle-axe of savage ignorance than to the lion-hearted Richard was the keen cimeter of the Saracen. He who would oppose it, either through inability to comprehend the advantages of general education, or from unwillingness to bestow them on all his fellow citizens, even to the lowest and the poorest, or from dread of popular vengeance, seems to want either the head of the philosopher, the heart of the philanthropist, or the nerve of the hero."

He has lived long enough to see this law, which he helped to found in 1834, and more than any other man was instrumental in saving from repeal in 1835, expanded and consolidated into a noble system of public instruction. Twelve thousand schools have been built by the voluntary taxation of the people, to the amount, for school houses alone, of nearly ten million dollars. Many millions of children have been educated in these schools. More than seven hundred thousand attended the public schools of Pennsylvania in 1864-65, and their annual cost, provided by voluntary taxation in the year 1864, was nearly three million dollars, giving employment to sixteen thousand teachers.

It is glory enough for one man to have connected his name so honorably with the original establishment and effective defense of such a system.

But it is said that the thirst for knowledge among the young; the pride and ambition of parents for their children, are agencies powerful enough to establish and maintain thorough and comprehensive systems of education.



This suggestion is answered by the unanimous voice of publicists and political economists. They all admit that the doctrine of "Demand and Supply" does not apply to educational wants. Even the most extreme advocates of the principle of *laissez faire* as a sound maxim of political philosophy, admit that governments must interfere in aid of education. We must not wait for the *wants* of the rising generation to be expressed in a *demand* for means of education. We must ourselves discover and supply their *needs*, before the time for supplying them has forever passed. John Stuart Mill says:

"But there are other things, of the worth of which the demand of the market is by no means a test; things of which the utility does not consist in ministering to inclinations, nor in serving the daily uses of life, and the want of which is least felt where the need is greatest. This is peculiarly true of those things which are chiefly useful as tending to raise the character of human beings. The uncultivated can not be judges of cultivation.

"Those who most need to be made wiser and better, usually desire it least, and if they desired it, would be incapable of finding the way to it by their own lights. It will continually happen on the voluntary system, that, the end not being desired, the means will not be provided at all, or that the persons requiring improvement having an imperfect or altogether erroneous conception of what they want, the supply called forth by the demand of the market, will be any thing but what is really required. Now any well intentioned and tolerably civilized government may think, without presumption, that it does, or ought to possess a degree of cultivation above the average of the community which it rules, and that it should, therefore, be capable of offering better education and better instruction to the people, than the greater number of them would spontaneously select.

"Education, therefore, is one of those things which it is admissible in principle that the government should provide for the people. The case is one to which the reasons of the non-interference principle do not necessarily or universally extend.

"With regard to elementary education, the exception to ordinary rules may, I conceive, justifiably be carried still further. There are certain primary elements and means of knowledge which it is in the highest degree desirable that all human beings born into the community should acquire during childhood. If their parents, or those on whom they depend, have the power of obtaining for them this instruction, and fail to do it, they commit a double breach of duty; toward the children themselves, and toward the members of the community generally, who are all liable to suffer seriously from the consequences of ignorance and want of education in their fellow citizens. It is, therefore, an allowable exercise of government to impose on parents the legal obligation of giving elementary instruction to children. This, however, can not fairly be done without taking measures to insure that such instruction shall always be accessible to them, either gratuitously or at a trifling expense."

This is the testimony of economic science. I trust the statesmen

of this Congress will not think the subject of education too humble a theme for their most serious consideration. It has engaged the earnest attention of the best men of ancient and modern times, especially of modern statesmen and philanthropists.

I will fortify myself in the positions I have taken by quoting the authority of a few men who are justly regarded as teachers of the human race. If I keep in their company I can not wander far from the truth. I can not greatly err while I am guided by their counsel.

In his eloquent essay entitled *Way to establish a Free Commonwealth*, John Milton said :

"To make the people fittest to choose, and the chosen fittest to govern, will be to mend our corrupt and faulty education, to teach the people faith, not without virtue, temperance, modesty, sobriety, economy, justice ; not to admire wealth or honor ; to hate turbulence and ambition ; to place every one his private welfare and happiness in the public peace, liberty and safety."

England's most venerable living statesman, Lord Brougham, enforced the same truth in these noble words :

"Lawgivers of England ! I charge ye, have a care ! Be well assured that the contempt lavished upon the cabals of Constantinople, when the council disputed on a text, while the enemy, the derider of all their texts, was thundering at the gate, will be a token of respect compared with the loud shout of universal scorn which all mankind in all ages will send up against you, if you stand still and suffer a far deadlier foe than the Turcoman,—suffer the parent of all evil, all falsehood, all hypocrisy, all discharity, all self-seeking—him who covers over with pretexts of conscience the pitfalls that he digs for the souls on which he preys,—to stalk about the fold and lay waste its inmates—stand still and make no head against him, upon the vain pretext to soothe your indolence, that your action is obstructed by religious cabals—upon the far more guilty speculation, that by playing a party game you can turn the hatred of conflicting professors to your selfish purposes !

"Let the soldier be abroad, if he will ; he can do nothing in this age. There is another personage abroad, a person less imposing—in the eye of some insignificant. The Schoolmaster is abroad, and I trust to him, armed with his primer, against the soldier in full uniform array."

Lord Brougham gloried in the title of schoolmaster, and contrasted his work with that of the military conqueror in these words :

"The conqueror stalks onward with the 'pride, pomp and circumstance of war,' banners flying, shouts rending the air, guns thundering, and martial music pealing, to drown the shrieks of the wounded and the lamentations for the slain. Not thus the schoolmaster in his peaceful vocation. He meditates and prepares in secret the plans which are to bless mankind ; he slowly gathers around him those who are to farther their execution ; he quietly, though firmly, advances in his humble path laboring steadily, but calmly, till he has opened to

the light all the recesses of ignorance, and torn up by the roots the weeds of vice. His is a progress not to be compared with any thing like a march; but it leads to a far more brilliant triumph, and to laurels more imperishable than the destroyer of his species, the scourge of the world, ever won."

The learned and brilliant Guizot, who regarded his work in the office of Minister of Public Instruction, in the government of France, the noblest and most valuable work of his life, has left us this valuable testimony.

"Universal education is henceforth one of the guarantees of liberty and social stability. As every principle of our government is founded on justice and reason, to diffuse education among the people, to develop their understandings and enlighten their minds, is to strengthen their constitutional government and secure its stability."

In his Farewell Address, Washington wrote these words of wise counsel:

"Promote, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. In proportion as the structure of a government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion should be enlightened."

In his Inaugural Message, when first taking the Presidential chair, the elder Adams said:

"The wisdom and generosity of the legislature in making liberal appropriations in money for the benefit of schools, academies and colleges, is an equal honor to them and to their constituents, a proof of their veneration for letters and science, and a portent of great and lasting good to North and South America and to the world. Great is truth—great is liberty—great is humanity—and they must and will prevail."

Chancellor Kent used this decided language:

"The parent who sends his son into the world uneducated, defrauds the community of a lawful citizen, and bequeaths to it a nuisance."

I shall conclude the citation of opinions with the stirring words of Edward Everett:

"I know not to what we can better liken the strong appetite of the mind for improvement than to a hunger and thirst after knowledge and truth, nor how can we better describe the province of education than to say, it does that for the intellect which is done for the body, when it receives the care and nourishment which are necessary for its growth, health and strength.

"From this comparison I think I derive new views of the importance of education. It is now a solemn duty, a tender, sacred trust.

"What! feed a child's body, and let his soul hunger! pamper his limbs and starve his faculties!

"Plant the earth, cover a thousand hills with your droves of cattle, pursue the fish to their hiding places in the sea, and spread out your wheat fields across the plains in order to supply the wants of that body, which will soon be as cold and senseless as their poorest clod, and let the pure spiritual essence within you, with all its glorious capacities for improvement, languish and pine! What! build factories, turn in rivers upon the waterwheels, unchain the imprisoned spirits of steam, to weave a garment for the body, and let the soul remain unadorned and naked!

"What! send out your vessels to the farthest ocean, and make battle with the monsters of the deep, in order to obtain the means of lighting up your dwellings and workshops, and prolonging the hours of labor for the meat that perisheth, and permit that vital spark, which God has kindled, which He has intrusted to our care, to be fanned into a bright and heavenly flame; permit it, I say, to languish and go out!"

It is remarkable that so many good things have been said, and so few things done by our national statesmen in favor of education. If we inquire what has been done by the governments of other countries to support and advance public education, we are compelled to confess with shame that every government in christendom has given a more intelligent and effective support to schools than has our own.

The free cities of Germany organized the earliest school systems after the separation of church and state. The present schools of Hamburg have existed more than 1,000 years. The earliest school codes were framed in the Duchy of Wurtemberg, in 1565, and in the Electorate of Saxony in 1580. Under these codes were established systems of schools, more perfect, it is claimed, than the school system of any State of the American union. Their systems embraced the gymnasium and the university, and were designed, as their laws expressed it, "to carry youth from the elements to the degree of culture demanded for offices in church and state."

The educational institutions of Prussia are too well known to need a comment. It is a sufficient index of their aim and high character that a late Prussian school officer said of his official duties:

"I promised God that I would look upon every Prussian peasant-child as a being who could complain of me before God if I did not provide for him the best education as a man and a christian which it was possible for me to provide."

France did not think herself dishonored by learning from a nation which she had lately conquered; for when, in 1831, she began to provide more fully for the education of her people, she sent the philosopher Cousin to Holland and Prussia, to study and report upon the schools of those States. Guizot was made Minister of Public Instruction, and held the office from 1832 to 1837. In 1833 the report

of Cousin was published, and the educational system of France was established on the Prussian model.

No portion of his brilliant career reflects more honor upon Guizot than his five years' work for the schools of France. The fruits of his labors were not lost in the revolutions that followed. The present emperor is giving his best efforts to the perfection and maintenance of schools, and is endeavoring to make the profession of the teacher more honorable and desirable than it has been hitherto.

Through the courtesy of the Secretary of State, I have obtained the last annual report of the Minister of Public Instruction in France, which exhibits the present state of education in that empire.

At the last enumeration there were in France, in the colleges and lyceums, 65,832 pupils, in the secondary schools, 200,000, and in the primary or common schools, 4,720,234.

Besides the large amount raised by local taxation, the imperial government appropriated, during the year 1865, 2,349,051 francs for the support of primary schools.

Teaching is one of the regular professions in France, and the government offers prizes, and bestows honors upon the successful instructor of children. During the year 1865, 1,154 prizes were distributed to teachers in primary schools.

An order of honor, and a medal worth 250 francs, is awarded to the best teacher in each commune.

After a long and faithful service in his profession, the teacher is retired on half pay, and, if broken down in health, is pensioned for life. In 1865, there were 4,245 teachers on the pension list of France. The Minister says in his report: "The statesmen of France have determined to show that the country knows how to honor those who serve her even in obscurity."

Since 1862, 10,243 libraries for the use of common schools have been established, and they now contain 1,117,352 volumes, more than a third of which have been furnished by the imperial government. Half a million text-books are furnished for the use of children who are too poor to buy them. It is the policy of France to afford the means of education to every child in the empire.

When we compare the conduct of other governments with our own, we can not accuse ourselves so much of illiberality, as of reckless folly in the application of our liberality to the support of schools. No government has expended so much to so little purpose. To fourteen States alone we have given, for the support of schools, 83,000 square miles of land; or an amount of territory nearly equal to two

such States as Ohio. But how has this bountiful appropriation been applied? This chapter in our history has never been written. No member of this House or the Senate; no executive officer of the government now knows, and no man ever did know, what disposition has been made of this immense bounty. This bill requires the Commissioner of Education to report to Congress what lands have been given to schools, and how the proceeds have been applied. If we are not willing to follow the example of our fathers in giving, let us, at least, perpetuate the record of their liberality, and preserve its beneficent results.

Mr. Speaker: I have thus hurriedly and imperfectly exhibited the magnitude of the interests involved in the education of American youth; the peculiar condition of affairs which demand at this time, an increase of our educational forces; the failure of a majority of the States to establish school systems; the long struggles through which others have passed in achieving success, and the humiliating contrast between the action of our government, and those of other nations in reference to education; but I can not close without referring to the bearing of this measure upon the peculiar work of this Congress.

When the history of the XXXIX Congress is written, it will be recorded that two great purposes inspired it, and made their impress upon all its efforts, viz: to build up free States on the ruins of slavery, and to extend to every inhabitant of the United States the rights and privileges of citizenship.

Before the divine Architect builded order out of chaos, He said, "let there be light." Shall we commit the fatal mistake of building up free States without expelling the darkness in which slavery shrouded them? Shall we enlarge the boundaries of citizenship and make no provision to increase the intelligence of the citizen?

I share most fully in the aspirations of this Congress, and give my most cordial support to its policy; but I believe its work will prove a disastrous failure unless it makes the schoolmaster its ally, and aids him in preparing the children of the United States to perfect the work now begun.

The stork is a sacred bird in Holland, and is protected by public law, because it destroys those insects which would undermine the dikes and let the sea again overwhelm the rich fields of the Netherlands. Shall this government do nothing to foster and strengthen those educational agencies which alone can shield the coming generation from ignorance and vice, and make it the impregnable bulwark of liberty and law?



I know that this measure presents few attractions to those whose chief work is to watch the political movements that relate only to nominating conventions and elections. The mere politician will see in it nothing valuable, for the millions of children to be benefited by it, can give him no votes. But I appeal to those who care more for the future safety and glory of this nation than for any mere temporary advantage, to aid in giving to education the public recognition and active support of the Federal government.

The final action of the House on the bill was not reached till the 19th of June, when the question being taken by yeas and nays, it was passed by a vote of 80 yeas to 44 nays, with the following title and provisions:

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH A DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That there shall be established, at the city of Washington, a Department of Education for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted,* That there shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, a Commissioner of Education, who shall be intrusted with the management of the department herein established, and who shall receive a salary of four thousand dollars per annum, and who shall have authority to appoint one chief clerk of his department, who shall receive a salary of two thousand dollars per annum, one clerk who shall receive a salary of eighteen hundred dollars per annum, and one clerk who shall receive a salary of sixteen hundred dollars per annum, which said clerks shall be subject to the appointing and removing power of the Commissioner of Education.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That it shall be the duty of the Commissioner of Education to present annually to Congress a report embodying the results of his investigations and labors, together with a statement of such facts and recommendations as will, in his judgment, subserve the purpose for which this department is established. In the first report made by the Commissioner of Education under this act there shall be presented a statement of the several grants of land made by Congress to promote education, and the manner in which these several trusts have been managed, the amount of funds arising therefrom, and the annual proceeds of the same, as far as the same can be determined.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted,* That the Commissioner of Public Buildings is hereby authorized and directed to furnish proper offices for the use of the department herein established.

The Bill, in the Senate, was referred to the Standing Committee on the Judiciary, who recommended its passage without amendment; and, after a debate on the 26th of Feb., 1867, on a motion to substitute Bureau for Department, was passed without division on the 1st of March, and signed by the President on the 2d. On the 11th of March, HENRY BARNARD was nominated by President JOHNSON, on the 16th was confirmed by the unanimous vote of the Senate, and on the 17th entered on the duties of Commissioner of Education.

## NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

The undersigned desires to obtain, as early as practicable, accurate but condensed information of the designation, history, and present condition of every Institution and Agency of Education in the United States, and of the name, residence, and special work of every person in the administration, instruction, and management of the same. Any response to this Circular in reference to any Institution, Agency, or subject included in the following Schedule, addressed to the *Department of Education, Washington, D. C.*, and indorsed "official," is entitled, by direction of the Postmaster General, to be conveyed by mail *free* of postage, and will be thankfully received by

HENRY BARNARD,

*Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.*

### SCHEDULE OF INFORMATION SOUGHT RESPECTING SYSTEMS, INSTITUTIONS, AND AGENCIES OF EDUCATION.

#### **A. General Condition,** (*of District, Village, City, County, State.*)

Territorial Extent, Municipal Organization, Population, Valuation, Receipts, and Expenditures for all public purposes.

#### **B. System of Public Instruction.**

#### **C. Incorporated Institutions, and other Schools and Agencies of Education.**

##### **I. ELEMENTARY OR PRIMARY EDUCATION.**

(Public, Private, and Denominational; and for boys or girls.)

##### **II. ACADEMIC OR SECONDARY EDUCATION.**

(Institutions mainly devoted to studies not taught in the Elementary Schools, and to preparation for College or Special Schools.)

##### **III. COLLEGIATE OR SUPERIOR EDUCATION.**

(Institutions entitled by law to grant the degree of Bachelor of Arts or Science.)

##### **IV. PROFESSIONAL, SPECIAL, OR CLASS EDUCATION.**

(Institutions having special studies and training, such as—1. Theology. 2. Law. 3. Medicine. 4. Teaching. 5. Agriculture. 6. Architecture, (Design and Construction.) 7. Technology—Polytechnic. 8. Engineering, (Civil or Mechanical.) 9. War, (on land or sea.) 10. Business or Trade. 11. Navigation. 12. Mining and Metallurgy. 13. Drawing and Painting. 14. Music. 15. Deaf-mutes. 16. Blind. 17. Idiotic. 18. Juvenile offenders. 19. Orphans. 20. Girls. 21. Colored or Freedmen. 22. Manual or Industrial. 23. *Not specified above*—such as Chemistry and its applications—Modern Languages—Natural History and Geology—Steam and its applications,—Pharmacy—Veterinary Surgery, &c.)

##### **V. SUPPLEMENTARY EDUCATION.**

1. Sunday and Mission Schools. 2. Apprentice Schools. 3. Evening Schools. 4. Courses of Lectures. 5. Lyceums for Debates. 6. Reading Rooms—Periodicals. 7. Libraries of Reference or Circulation. 8. Gymnasiums, Boat and Ball Clubs, and other Athletic Exercises. 9. Public Gardens, Parks and Concerts. 10. *Not specified above.*

#### **VI. SOCIETIES, INSTITUTES, MUSEUMS, CABINETS, AND GALLERIES FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE, LITERATURE, AND THE ARTS.**

#### **VII. EDUCATIONAL AND OTHER PERIODICALS.**

#### **VIII. SCHOOL FUNDS AND EDUCATIONAL BENEFACTIONS.**

#### **IX. LEGISLATION (STATE OR MUNICIPAL) RESPECTING EDUCATION.**

#### **X. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.**

#### **XI. PENAL AND CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.**

#### **XII. CHURCHES AND OTHER AGENCIES OF RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.**

#### **XIII. REPORTS AND OTHER PUBLICATIONS ON SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION.**

#### **XIV. MEMOIRS OF TEACHERS, AND PROMOTERS OF EDUCATION.**

#### **XV. EXAMINATIONS (COMPETITIVE, OR OTHERWISE) FOR ADMISSION TO NATIONAL OR STATE SCHOOLS, OR TO PUBLIC SERVICE OF ANY KIND.**

## EDUCATIONAL LAND POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES.

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The Act establishing the Department of Education makes it the duty of the Commissioner in his first report "to present a statement, of the several grants of land made by Congress to promote education, and the manner in which these several trusts have been managed, the amount of funds arising therefrom, and the annual proceeds of the same as far as can be determined."

The following account of the Educational Land Policy of the United States, and of the disposition of the Congressional land grants in Minnesota are printed in advance of the report, not only to diffuse information, but to indicate the nature of the statistics that the Department desires to receive.

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The growth of the public sentiment that led Congress to inaugurate the system of land grants for education was gradual. The first settlers of Massachusetts and Connecticut from the earliest period set apart lands for schools. In other colonies, before the Declaration of Independence, intelligent men felt the importance of some public provision for the education of the people, as private benevolence was found to be fitful and wholly inadequate. Doctor Samuel Johnson, President of King's (now Columbia) College, in New York city, on April 10, 1762, wrote to Archbishop Secker—

I beg leave, my Lord, to observe that it is a great pity when patents are granted, as they often are, for large tracts of land no provision is made for religion and schools. I wish, therefore, instructions were given to our governors never to grant patents for townships or villages or large manors without requiring the patentees to sequester a competent portion for the support of religion and schools.

Early in 1784 Georgia, in an act relative to the survey of lands in the western part of the State, uses this language :

And whereas the encouragement of religion and learning is an object of great importance to any community, and must tend to the prosperity, happiness, and advantage of the same,

*Be it therefore enacted by the authority aforesaid,* That the county surveyors, immediately after the passage of this act, shall proceed to lay out in each county twenty thousand acres of land of the first quality, in separate tracts of five thousand acres each, for the endowment of a collegiate seminary of learning.

The next year an act establishing a university was passed, a trustee of which was William Houstoun, a member of the Congress of the United States from that State, and one of the committee, as will be seen,

that reported a bill with the provision setting apart a certain portion of land in each township of the western territory for school purposes.

On the 17th of May, 1784, Mr. Jefferson, as Chairman of a committee for that purpose, presented to the Congress of the Confederation an ordinance respecting the disposition of public lands. This draft contained no reference to schools or education. On the 4th of March, 1785, another bill for the sale of western lands was introduced, by whom not stated, and on the 16th was recommitted by Congress to a committee of twelve.\*

This committee on the fourteenth of April reported "An ordinance for ascertaining the mode of disposing of lands in the western territory," which contained the following paragraph :

There shall be reserved the central section of every township for the maintenance of public schools, and the section immediately adjoining the same to the northward for the support of religion. The profits arising therefrom in both instances to be applied forever according to the will of the majority of the male residents of full age within the same.

On the twenty-third of the same month, Mr. Pinckney, of South Carolina, seconded by Mr. Grayson, of Virginia, moved to strike out "for the support of religion," and insert "for religious and charitable uses." Mr. Ellery, of Rhode Island, seconded by Mr. Smith, of New York, moved to amend the amendment by striking out the words "religious and." On the question, Shall the words moved to be struck out stand ?

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\* The committee were Pierce Long, of New Hampshire, Rufus King, of Massachusetts, David Howell, of Rhode Island, Wm. S. Johnson, of Connecticut, R. R. Livingston, of New York, Charles Stewart, of New Jersey, Joseph Gardner, of Pennsylvania, John Henry, of Maryland, Wm. Grayson, of Virginia, Hugh Williamson, of North Carolina, John Bull, of South Carolina, and Wm. Houston, of Georgia.

Rufus King graduated at Harvard, in 1777.

David Howell, born in New Jersey, graduated at Princeton, in 1766, and was at one time Professor of Mathematics in Brown University.

Wm. S. Johnson, son of Dr. Samuel Johnson, graduated at Yale, 1744, a fellow of the Royal Society, and received the degree of LL.D. from Oxford, and at a later period President of Columbia College, New York city.

John Henry graduated at Princeton, in 1769.

Hugh Williamson graduated at College of Philadelphia, now University of Pennsylvania, in 1757, and had been Professor of Mathematics therein.

R. R. Livingston graduated at King's (now Columbia) College, New York city, in 1765, and in after life encouraged Fulton in propelling boats by steam, and was President of the Academy of Fine Arts.

The vote was as follows :\*

*States voting Aye.*

New Hampshire..... Mr. Foster.  
New Hampshire..... Mr. Long.  
Massachusetts..... Mr. Holton.  
Massachusetts..... Mr. King.  
Connecticut..... Mr. Johnson.  
Pennsylvania..... Mr. Gardner.  
Pennsylvania..... Mr. Henry.  
Delaware..... Mr. Vining.  
Delaware..... Mr. Bedford.  
Virginia..... Mr. Monroe.  
Virginia..... Mr. Lee.  
Virginia..... Mr. Grayson.  
South Carolina..... Mr. Pinckney.  
Georgia..... Mr. Houstoun.

*States voting No.*

Rhode Island... Mr. Ellery.  
Rhode Island... Mr. Howell.  
Maryland..... Mr. McHenry.  
Maryland..... Mr. Henry.  
Maryland..... Mr. Hindman (aye.)

*States divided.*

New York..... Mr. Smith (no.)  
New York..... Mr. Haring (aye.)  
North Carolina.. Mr. Williamson (aye.)  
North Carolina.. Mr. Sitgreaves (no.)

So the question was lost and the words were stricken out.

Mr. Ellery, of Rhode Island, seconded by Mr. Smith, of New York, now moved to strike out all that which related to setting apart a section for the support of religion. On the question, Shall the words, "and the section immediately adjoining the same to the northward, for the support of religion," stand?

The vote was as follows :

*States voting Aye.*

New Hampshire..... Mr. Foster.  
New Hampshire..... Mr. Long.  
Massachusetts..... Mr. Holton.  
Massachusetts..... Mr. King.  
Connecticut..... Mr. Johnson.  
Pennsylvania..... Mr. Gardner.  
Pennsylvania..... Mr. W. Henry.  
Delaware..... Mr. Vining.  
Delaware..... Mr. Bedford.  
Virginia..... Mr. Monroe.  
Virginia..... Mr. Lee.  
Virginia..... Mr. Grayson.  
South Carolina..... Mr. Pinckney.  
Georgia..... Mr. Houstoun.

*States voting No.*

Rhode Island... Mr. Ellery.  
Rhode Island... Mr. Howell.  
Maryland..... Mr. McHenry.  
Maryland..... Mr. J. Henry.  
Maryland..... Mr. Hindman (aye.)

*States divided.*

New York..... Mr. Smith (no.)  
New York..... Mr. Haring (aye.)  
North Carolina.. Mr. Williamson (aye.)  
North Carolina.. Mr. Sitgreaves (no.)

So the question was lost and the words were stricken out.

A motion was then made by Mr. Johnson, of Connecticut, and seconded by Mr. King, of Massachusetts, further to amend the paragraph by inserting after the word "schools" the following: "and the section immediately adjoining the same to the northward, for charitable uses;" which amendment was lost.

\* Congress, under the Articles of Confederation, voted by States. To adopt a measure the vote of seven States was required, and in certain cases nine. The vote of a State was not counted unless at least two members were present.

The vote was as follows :

*States voting Aye.*

New Hampshire.... Mr. Foster.  
New Hampshire.... Mr. Long.  
Massachusetts.... Mr. Holton.  
Massachusetts.... Mr. King.  
Connecticut..... Mr. Johnson.  
Delaware..... Mr. Vining.  
Delaware..... Mr. Bedford.  
Virginia..... Mr. Monroe.  
Virginia..... Mr. Lee.  
Virginia..... Mr. Grayson.  
South Carolina.... Mr. Pinckney.  
Georgia..... Mr. Houstoun.

*States voting No.*

New York..... Mr. Smith.  
New York..... Mr. Haring.  
Maryland..... Mr. McHenry.  
Maryland..... Mr. J. Henry.  
Maryland..... Mr. Hindman (aye.)

*States divided.*

North Carolina.. Mr. Williamson (aye.)  
North Carolina.. Mr. Sitgreaves (no.)  
Rhode Island... Mr. Ellery (no.)  
Rhode Island... Mr. Howell (aye.)  
Pennsylvania... Mr. Gardner (aye.)  
Pennsylvania... Mr. W. Henry (no.)

On May 20, 1785, the ordinance as finally amended was passed with the following provision for education :

There shall be reserved the lot No. 16 of every township for the maintenance of public schools.

The Ordinance of 1787 "for the government of the Territory northwest of the river Ohio" confirmed the provision of 1785, and declared that "religion, morality and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." A few days after the passage of the Ordinance, regulations were made for the sale of the western territory, and in these it was provided that lot No. 16 in each township should be given perpetually for schools, and that "lot No. 29 in each township, or fractional part of a township, to be given perpetually for the purposes of religion;" and, further, that "not more than two complete townships to be given perpetually for the purposes of a university."

The grant of lot No. 29 for the purposes of religion has only been made in two instances—in the case of the Ohio Company, and what is known as the Symmes Purchase. Ohio, and the other western States admitted into the Union during the first half of the present century, received the sixteenth section of every township for the use of schools, in addition to the grant of two townships for universities.

The Commissioner of the Land Office, in 1846, and the Secretary of the Treasury, (R. J. Walker,) in 1847, recommended an increased grant of lands for school purposes to the new States and Territories.

In the first session of the Thirtieth Congress, February 15, 1848, as the question was about being put on the passage of the bill admitting Wisconsin as a State of the Union, the Hon. John A. Rockwell, member of the House of Representatives from Connecticut, moved an amendment giving the thirty-sixth in addition to the sixteenth section in each



township for educational uses, which was rejected, fifty-eight voting in the affirmative, and eighty in the negative.

In the acts establishing territorial governments for Oregon, in August, 1848, and for Minnesota, approved March 2, 1849, it was provided that sections numbered sixteen and thirty-six in each township should be reserved for the use of schools.

#### UNITED STATES LAND GRANTS FOR EDUCATION IN MINNESOTA.

As Minnesota was the first State in the valley of the Mississippi to receive twelve hundred and eighty acres in each township, to be employed in training her children for intelligent suffrage, the only safeguard for the perpetuity of a republican form of government, it is desirable to trace the steps she has taken in husbanding this precious gift from the nation, and the results of her supervision.

When, in 1857, a Convention assembled to form a constitution, preparatory to its admission into the Union, an interesting discussion arose as to the wisest course to be pursued in disposing and guarding the school lands.

The Committee on Education reported a provision that for the next ten years after the ratification of the constitution, the public school lands should "not be disposed of otherwise than by lease."

The Hon. A. E. Ames said: "I deem it proper to state what governed me as Chairman of the Committee having this subject under consideration, in inserting that clause. In my opinion, this gift of the General Government to the future State of Minnesota for the support of public schools is a sacred gift, which should be taken care of and husbanded in the best manner possible. Looking to the past, I saw how many of the western States having similar grants have disposed of them almost immediately after assuming the form of State governments, without realizing but a small portion of the amount which they might, with a little care, have realized as a perpetual fund for the support of schools hereafter. \* \* \* I have said that it is a sacred gift, intrusted to us for our children and our children's children; if we husband it well, they will 'rise up and called us blessed.' If we squander it away, we shall receive only their curses." Delegates as intelligent and public-spirited as the committee, advocated a different policy and opposed the incorporation of the clause as to leasing lands, into the constitution. Hon. H. H. Sibley, who became the first Governor under the State organization, advocated what he thought would be "carrying out the great democratic idea of bringing down, as near as

possible, to the people, the disposal of these lands." He desired that "the people who live in a particular township should be able to say for themselves what disposition shall be made of the lands donated to them within their own limits." After considerable time had been passed in considering the report of the committee, a former Territorial Governor, Hon. Willis A. Gorman, moved to strike out the sentence that "the school lands for ten years should not be disposed of otherwise than by lease," and insert, "and not more than one-third of said lands may be sold in two years, one-third in five years, and one-third in ten years," which amendment was adopted as a compromise.

Article eight of the Constitution of Minnesota is as follows:

SEC. 1. The stability of a republican form of government depending mainly upon the intelligence of the people, it shall be the duty of the legislature to establish a general and uniform system of public schools.

SEC. 2. The proceeds of such lands as are or hereafter may be granted by the United States for the use of schools within each township in this State, shall remain a perpetual school fund to the State, and not more than one-third of said lands may be sold in two years, one-third in five years, and one-third in ten years; but the lands of the greatest valuation shall be sold first: *Provided*, That no portion of said lands shall be sold otherwise than at public sale.

The principal of all funds arising from sales or other disposition of lands or other property granted to this State in each township for educational purposes, shall forever be preserved inviolate and undiminished; and the income arising from the lease or sale of said school lands shall be distributed to the different townships throughout the State, in proportion to the number of scholars in each township between the ages of five and twenty-one years, and shall be faithfully applied to the specific objects of the original grants or appropriations.

SEC. 3. The legislature shall make such provisions, by taxation or otherwise, as with the income arising from the school fund, will secure a thorough and efficient system of public schools in each township of the State.

SEC. 4. The location of the University of Minnesota, as established by existing laws, is hereby confirmed, and said institution is hereby declared to be the University of the State of Minnesota.

All the rights, immunities, franchises, and endowments heretofore granted or conferred, are hereby perpetuated unto the said university, and all lands which may be granted hereafter by Congress, or other donations for said university purposes, shall vest in the institution referred to in this section."

An act of the Legislature, approved March 10, 1860, made the Chancellor of the State University *ex officio* Superintendent of Public Instruction, but failed to provide a salary for the performance of the duties of either office. Notwithstanding this inconvenience, the Chancellor immediately proceeded to attend to the interests of public schools. In his first report, dated January 14, 1861, under the head of school lands, he says:

During the month of June, 1860, the capital of Wisconsin was visited, and several days passed in interviews with the officers of the State in relation to their land system, its defects, and a better way of conducting the sale of lands. In order that a general idea might be obtained of the present value of our school lands, the following questions were addressed to the Superintendent of Schools in each town.

Is there timber on the school sections?

To what extent?

Are the school lands swampy or well drained?

Are they watered by springs, creeks, or rivers?

Nature of the soil?

The present highest market price for similar lands?

The lowest price for similar lands?

Are there settlers on the school lands?

Were they there before the survey was made?

Have any depredations of timber or grass taken place?

The answers returned, show that the school lands are among the most valuable in the State, and legislation in relation thereto cannot be too careful and deliberate. The constitution imposes a healthful check upon those, who for purposes of private speculation, would hurry a sale of the entire school lands.

Governor Ramsey seconded the friends of education, in preserving the school lands from hasty sale. In his message to the Legislature of 1861, he says:

The Constitution provides that the proceeds of the school lands shall constitute a perpetual school fund for the State, and that the principal arising from the sales of such lands shall forever be preserved inviolate and undiminished.

It is the necessary logical implication of the constitutional provision, that the school lands should be administered with a view to the *permanent interests of the school fund*. It is only by adhering to this as a fundamental principle of legislation, by regarding the school lands not as a temporary source of relief from present burdens, but as a provision for the permanent interests of education, that we can rightly discharge the sacred obligations to posterity which this trust imposes upon us, or fitly respond to the elevated and paternal policy of the general government.

There has always been a disposition in the new States to hurry the school lands prematurely into market, partly originating in the desire of interested parties to obtain possession of these lands at low prices, and partly from the impatient eagerness of the pioneer to realize an immediate income therefrom, for the support of schools. There are, indeed, some plausible reasons why the pioneer should ask that the school lands should be used for his benefit. His are all the struggles and privations incident to the early colonization of the wilderness. By the sweat of his brow are laid the foundations of that wealth which is to yield the future revenues of the State. The expense and difficulty of maintaining schools in our present sparse and poor settlements, it is speciously alleged, renders local taxation more burdensome and legislative aid more welcome now than at any subsequent period.

It would, perhaps, be difficult to prove that the hardships and poverty of the first settlers in a new State are of such a peculiar character as to constitute a special claim to enjoy the benefit of the school grant to the prejudice of posterity. And it will not be overlooked, as against a pretension so greedy in its motive and so subversive in its consequences of the welfare of the State, that if the first settler endures some privations, he also enjoys great advantages which are denied to his successors. If he turns the first furrow, he also reaps the richest harvest. He does not accept the rugged lot of the pioneer as a personal sacrifice for the good of the State from which he therefore claims a special bounty, but from a shrewd calculation of its prospective benefits to himself. The rapid rise in the value of lands which attends the first stages of the growth of new settlements, turns principally to the advantage of the first settler, who has had the choice of the best locations; and that which he is so apt to claim as the tardy fruit of his own toil, more often results, without his agency, from the increase of population and capital around him. With what justice then can the incoming thousands of men who shall complete the social superstructure about him; and swell the sources of his prosperity, be deprived of the benefits of the enhanced value which they will give the school lands?

Nor has this policy, which would impoverish the future for the benefit of the present, any support in the sentiment of paternal solicitude. Our children we

may be sure would be anything but grateful for the benefits of an education procured at the selfish sacrifice of the noble heritage of which Providence has made us the trustees for their benefit, and the benefit of all those that come after them, and will scarcely build monuments to the memory of those men who, to enjoy an immunity from temporary taxation, entailed a treble burden on the education of their posterity for all time to come.

I am, however, very far from urging that the school lands shall only be disposed of with a view solely to realizing therefrom the largest ultimate fund. Such a principle would imply an indefinite postponement of the sale of the lands to the prejudice not only of education, but of all collateral public interests. It is to the general and permanent utility of the fund, and not its mere accumulation as a pecuniary investment, that you are to look, and it is for you to judge how far the public interests may be best subserved in the long run by encroaching on the school reserves for the means of education in the infancy of the State.

The constitution places no check upon legislative action in this matter, except in the provision that no more than one-third of the school lands shall be sold in two years, one-third in five years, and one-third in ten years; and that the most valuable shall be sold first—an obviously insufficient safeguard against improvident legislation.

Looking, then, at the ultimate fund to be derived from the school lands as a permanent resource of education for all time to come, it is for you to decide what this magnificent endowment is to be worth as an instrument of social development to the unborn millions of the future. The estimate now placed upon it will be the witness to posterity of the loftiness or the meanness of the views which actuate us. This estimate will be expressed first of all in the minimum price which you shall affix to the lands.

The question of a minimum, you will perceive, is in fact the cardinal point to be established.

There is one general principle in the adjustment of a minimum which, I doubt not, will meet with general concurrence. It should not be so high as to exclude the present generation from the benefits of the resulting revenue, nor so low as to impoverish the permanent fund. How, then, shall the permanent interests of the school fund be reconciled with the just claims of the present generation? The school lands represent not an actual, but a latent and prospective value, depending upon the general growth of the State for its development. Lands that might be sold this year for half a million dollars, would probably be sold in ten years for three millions. The former sum at seven per cent. interest, would yield an annual revenue of \$35,000, the latter, of \$210,000. Will the benefits that will accrue to education during the interval between the lower and higher valuation compensate you and your children for a sacrifice of five-sixths of the prospective value of the lands? I think not. And surely, looking solely to the interests of the present generation of children, and regarding the period of fifteen years over which our laws assume that the education of youth extends, it would not be a wise economy to provide for the first five years at such an expense to the last ten.

But as the fixing of the minimum attainable in the present generation implies some sacrifice of prospective values, where shall the line be drawn? Such a line must, of course, be arbitrary, but I think we are not entirely without data for approximation to a standard which will reconcile the interests of the present and future on the common ground of the public weal.

It is proper to observe that the value of the school lands bears a distinct relation to the density of population. Lands rapidly rise in value under the pressure of immigration, from the first settlement up to the point of their general occupation, and up to this point the school reserves ought not to be sold. But after the lands become mostly occupied in a given township, experience warrants the assumption that the included reserves have reached a standard of value beyond which the yearly increase will commonly be slow; and it may then become a matter of public policy that they should be settled upon and improved, and enter into the taxable basis of the State, and thus contribute in another form more to the immediate revenue of the schools and other collateral public interests than if retained for an advanced price. It is also worth considering that the compactness of neighbor-

hood which would give a fair value to the school lands, is essential to an efficient and economical expenditure of the school revenues.

While, therefore, the permanent interest of the school fund, and its useful expenditure, seem to require that the lands should not be sold till their intrinsic value had become developed by the growth of population around them, public policy demands that they should not be retained to be an obstacle to neighborhood, or withheld from cultivation for speculative purposes, after all the lands around them are taken up.

These principles, it seems, should regulate the establishment of a minimum price for the school lands.

A density of between 25 or 30 persons to the square mile in any given township, would probably imply an average valuation of the included school lands of about eight dollars an acre. In our more thickly settled counties, some of the reserved sections have already attained this average. Beyond this, it is doubtful if the increase in value would compensate for the public loss occasioned by their exclusion from settlement.

It is possible, too, that by adopting, at least for the highest grade of lands, a minimum of \$8 per acre—the old standard in Michigan—a larger fund would be realized in ten or fifteen years than by the loose method of appraisal, with a minimum of \$1 25, the system established in Iowa and Wisconsin, under which their splendid grants have become the prey of speculators. If our State advances the next decade as rapidly in population as Iowa, it is scarcely doubtful that some 300,000 acres of school lands will have attained the average value of \$8 per acre, equal to \$2,400,000 in all. This is, indeed, greater than the fund derived from the school lands in a similar period in Iowa or Wisconsin, where the lands have been sold at very low rates. But two things should be borne in mind in relation to the results of sales in those States: First, that we have twice the amount of these lands in proportion to our area, and three or four times the aggregate amount; second, that under the appraisal method of those States the interests of the fund have been uniformly sacrificed to the interests of local combinations. While, therefore, they have managed to get rid of a large amount of lands in a short space of time—which has seemed to be the main object—they have realized only a small proportion of their true value to the State. The minimum of \$1 25, which the legislatures of those States adopted, shows at how low a rate they prized the national boon.

The results of their short-sighted policy ought to be a sufficient warning against the errors of their example. Considerably more than half of the school lands have been sold in these States within the last ten years, and the fund realized in each case has been less than two million dollars. It would be mere repetition to say that, under a proper system, nearly the same results might have been obtained from a third of the land sold. In Michigan—where a minimum of \$8 originally obtained, afterwards reduced to \$5—out of only a million acres of school lands, one-third have been sold in twenty years, with a resulting fund of \$1,613,434. It is worthy of remark, that over \$400,000 of this was produced by the sales of the first five years, at an average of \$7 per acre.

You will not understand me as attempting to fix a precise valuation for the school lands, but as simply indicating the principles upon which, in my view, the minimum should be adjusted. But while adhering to a high valuation, it will be desirable to facilitate sales by the most liberal conditions consistent with the security of the principal and the prompt payment of the interest. A quarter of the purchase money paid down, with interest on the remainder at seven per cent. for thirty or more years, would probably be considered a better bargain to the purchaser than a much lower price, accompanied with those higher rates of interest and restricted time usual in private conveyances.

In accordance with the suggestions of the Governor, a State Land Office was established, the minimum price of school lands was fixed at five dollars per acre, and sales were required to be in the counties where the lands were situated. The present terms of payment on

school lands are, "for pine timber lands the whole amount; for other timber lands, which are chiefly valuable for the timber thereon, seventy-five per cent., to be paid at the time of sale, and all other lands fifteen per cent., to be paid at the time of sale, and the balance of the purchase-money at any time thereafter, from time to time, within twenty years, at the option of the purchaser, with interest annually in advance, at the rate of seven per cent. per annum on the unpaid balance, payable on the first day of June, or within six days thereafter, in each and every year." The purchase-money received "may be invested in Minnesota bonds (railroad bonds always excepted) or in United States bonds bearing not less than six per cent. interest."

The first sales of school lands occurred in the autumn of 1862, at a most unpropitious period, many able-bodied citizens having volunteered as soldiers in defence of the nation's honor, and hundreds having abandoned their farms in the frontier counties to escape the tomahawk and scalping-knife of the savage Sioux, while those who expected to settle in the State halted in regions supposed to be more secure. The results of the sales in the face of all these discouragements surprised the most sanguine, and created a fresh interest in popular education. More than thirty-eight thousand acres were disposed of, at a little more than 6½ dollars per acre, as will be seen by examining the following

*Statement of annual sales of school lands.*

Year.	No. of acres.	Price realized.	Average per acre.
1862 .....	38, 147. 13	\$242, 531 60	\$6 35.8
1863 .....	52, 293. 91	309, 777 46	5 92.4
1864 .....	41, 476. 26	287, 264 74	6 92.3
1865 .....	24, 211. 77	144, 915 05	5 96.5
1866 .....	54, 640. 50	340, 290 18	6 22.8
Total .....	210, 792. 87	1, 324, 779 03	6.28.4

Acres of school land unsold June 1, 1867, 2,775,898.

The total permanent school fund of the State, arising from the land grant, on November 30, 1866, was \$1,333,161 60.

The current school fund distributed in 1866 amounted to \$78,519 60, and the number of persons between five and twenty-one, 87,244, making an apportionment of ninety cents for each person.

The interest on school fund for the year 1867, according to estimate of the Hon. Mark H. Dunnell, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, will amount to \$117,435.



## LAND GRANT FOR TERRITORIAL UNIVERSITY.

In February, 1851, the Territorial legislature memorialized for a grant of lands for a Territorial University. On the 19th of February of the same year it was enacted by Congress, says a report of the Regents—

"That the Secretary of the Interior be, and he hereby is, authorized and directed to set apart and reserve from sale out of the public lands within the Territory of Minnesota, to which the Indian title has been or may be extinguished, and not otherwise appropriated, a quantity of land not exceeding two entire townships, for the use and support of a *University* in said *Territory*, and for no other use and purpose whatever, to be located in legal subdivisions of not less than one entire section."

Shortly after this congressional enactment the Regents of the Territorial University organized, obtained a site, erected a building thereon, and commenced instruction therein—the first instance on record of a Territorial University going into operation at so early a period in the history of a Territory.

The Regents also, with the approbation of the Secretary of the Interior, proceeded to select a large portion of the lands granted for the Territorial institution. Subsequently they erected a costly edifice and mortgaged it, by virtue of a power granted by the Territorial Legislature of 1856, for \$15,000, to secure the payment of certain bonds, and by another act passed in 1858, on the eighth day of March, before the admission of Minnesota into the Union, mortgaged lands that had been selected by the Regents, to secure the payment of a further sum of \$40,000 borrowed by the Regents for the Territorial institution.

The whole number of acres obtained by act of 1851 is 46,080, of which there has been sold 10,750 for the sum of \$52,412. Acres unsold of the Territorial grant are 35,530.

## STATE UNIVERSITY LAND GRANT.

Governor Marshall, in his last message to the Legislature, alludes to a claim of the State for a land grant for a State University not yet perfected. This claim was first made by the Regents to the Governor, April 5, 1860, in this language:

Heretofore Congress has made grants to Territories not having organized any Universities, and the lands being free from all prospective incumbrances, the Enabling Acts of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Iowa have used the following similar phraseology:

"Seventy-two sections of land set apart and reserved for the use and support of a university, by an act of Congress approved on \_\_\_\_\_ day of \_\_\_\_\_, are hereby granted and conveyed to the State, to be appropriated solely to the use and support of such university in such manner as the legislature may prescribe."

The condition of Minnesota being different, so far as a territorial university was concerned, we expect and find different language in the enabling act. There is no reference, as in acts alluded to, to previous reserves, but it is prospective. It says, if certain provisions are accepted:

"That seventy-two sections of land shall be set apart and reserved for the use and support of a *State* university to be selected by the *governor of said State*, subject to the approval of the Commissioner of the General Land Office."

Although a territorial university had been in existence for years, and the regents had selected lands, there is no reference thereto, but the language prescribes selections for a *future* State university.

Certainly it was not the intention of Congress to turn over the debts and prospectively encumbered lands of an old and badly managed territorial institution, but to give the State that was to be, a grant for a State university, free from all connections with territorial organizations.

Will you, therefore, take the steps indicated in the enabling act, and appoint, at an early day, some one to select two townships of land for the State university, incorporated by the last legislature?

#### AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE LAND GRANT.

Under "An act donating public lands to the several States and Territories which may provide colleges for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts," approved July 2, 1862, Minnesota is entitled to 120,000 acres, of which none has been sold.

#### THE FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND ACRES DUE THE STATE.

The five hundred thousand acres due the State by the provisions of an act of Congress entitled "An act to appropriate the proceeds of the sales of the public lands," etc., approved the fourth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and forty-one, which, by provisions of the Constitutions of Wisconsin, Iowa, Oregon, Kansas, California, and Nevada, are appropriated to educational purposes, do not appear as yet to have been set apart by Minnesota.

#### IV. SIR MATTHEW HALE.

##### PLAN OF EDUCATION FOR HIS GRANDCHILDREN.

Written in 1678.

IN a "*Letter of Advice to his Grandchildren*," written when he was "threescore and four years," and published after his death, Sir Matthew Hale—one of the most resplendent names in the annals of jurisprudence, for mental ability, general learning, purity of life, and impartiality as judge—gives the following plan for their education, in which he differs "upon great reason and observation" "from the ordinary method of tutors," not only in his day, but for two centuries afterwards in England:—

##### PLAN OF EDUCATION FOR BOYS BETWEEN THE AGES OF EIGHT AND TWENTY

As to you, my grandsons, you must know, that till you come to be about eighteen or twenty years old, you are but in preparation to a settled estate of life; as there is no certain conjecture to be made before that age what you will be fit for, so till that age you are under the hammer and the file, to fit, dispose, and prepare you for your future condition of life, if God be pleased to lend it you; and about that time it will probably appear, both what you will be fit for, and whether you are like to make a prosperous voyage in the world or not.

1. Until you come to eight years old, I expect no more of you than to be good English scholars, to read perfectly and distinctly any part of the Bible, or any other English book, and to carry yourselves respectfully and dutifully to those that are set over you.

2. About eight years old, you are to be put or sent to a grammar school, where I expect you should make a good progress in the Latin tongue, in oratory and poetry; but above all to be good proficient in the Latin tongue, that you may be able to read, understand and construe any Latin author, and to make true and handsome Latin; and though I would have you learn somewhat of Greek, yet the Latin tongue is that which I most value, because almost all learning is now under that language. And the time for your abode at the grammar school is till you are about sixteen years old.

3. After that age, I shall either remove you to some university, or to some tutor that may instruct you in university learning, thus to be educated till you are about twenty years old; and herein I shall alter the ordinary method of tutors, upon great reason and observation.

I therefore will have you employed from sixteen to seventeen in reading some Latin authors to keep your Latin tongue; but principally and chiefly in arithmetic and geometry, and geodesy or measuring of heights, distances, and superficies and solids, for this will habituate and enlarge your understanding,

and will furnish you with a knowledge which will be both delightful and useful all the days of your life; and will give you a pleasant and innocent diversion and entertainment when you are weary and tired with any other business.

From seventeen years old till nineteen or twenty, you may principally intend logic, natural philosophy, and metaphysics, according to the ordinary discipline of the university; but after you have read some systems or late topical or philosophical tracts that may give you some taste of the nature of those sciences, I shall advise your tutor to exercise you in Aristotle, for there is more sound learning of this kind to be found in him, touching these sciences, than in a cart-load of modern authors; only tutors scarce take the pains to understand him themselves, much less to instruct their scholars and pupils in them, insomuch, that there are few that have read his books.

And under the title of philosophy, I do not only intend his eight books of physics, but his books de Natura et Generatione Animalium, his books de Incestu Animalium, de Anima, de Meteoris, de Somno et Vigilia, de Morte, de Plantis, de Mundo, and his Mechanics, if you join thereunto Archimedes'.

These are part of real philosophy, and excellently handled by him, and have more of use and improvement of the mind than other notional speculations in logic or philosophy delivered by others; and the rather, because bare speculations and notions have little experience and external observation to confirm them, and they rarely fix the minds, especially of young men. But that part of philosophy that is real, may be improved and confirmed by daily observation; and is more stable, and yet more certain and delightful, and goes along with a man all his life, whatever employment or profession he undertakes.

4. When you come to above twenty years old, you are come to the critical age of your life; you are in that state of choice that the ancients tell us was offered to Hercules; on the left hand, a way of pleasure, of luxury, of idleness, intemperance, wantonness, which though it first be tempting and flattering, yet it ends in dishonor, in shame, in infamy, in poverty; such a way as the wise man spoke of, "There is a way that is pleasant and delightful, but the end of that way is death;" and that which the same wise man speaks of, (Eccles. xi. 9,) "Rejoice, O young man, in thy youth, and let thy heart cheer thee in the days of thy youth, and walk in the ways of thine heart. But know for all these things, God will bring thee into judgment." Again, on the right hand, there is a way of honesty and sobriety, of piety and the fear of God, of virtue and industry; and though this way may seem at first painful and rugged, yet it ends in peace and favor with God, and commonly in honor and reputation, in wealth and contentation even in this life. For although Almighty God hath reserved greater rewards for virtue and goodness than this life affords, yet he loves and delights to behold good and comely order among the children of men; and therefore a wise father will draw on his children to goodness, and learning, and obedience to him, with handsome rewards and encouragements, suitable to the age and disposition of his children. So the great Master and Father of the children of men, and of the great family of heaven and earth, doth commonly invite and draw men to ways of piety, virtue and goodness, by the encouragements of reputation, honor, esteem, wealth and other outward advantages, and thereby in great measure governs the children of men, and maintains that order that is necessary and convenient for the world of mankind.

And although this is neither the only nor chief reward of goodness and virtue yet till men are grown to that ripeness of understanding to look after re-

wards of a higher nature, namely, the happiness of the life to come, he is pleased most wisely to make use of these inferior encouragements and invitations, like so many little pulleys and cords, to draw men to the ways of virtue, piety and goodness, wherein, when they are once led and confirmed, they are established in higher and nobler expectations, namely, the love of God and the beauty of goodness and virtue. And on the right-hand way, there are not only propounded certain general virtues of sobriety, temperance and industry, but there are also certain particular walks of industry and virtue, and the exercise thereof in certain especial callings and employments, some more liberal and eminent, as divines, physicians, lawyers, &c. Some more laborious, yet generous enough as husbandry, the primitive and most innocent employment, is such as becomes noblemen and gentlemen. Some of other kinds, as merchants and handicrafts. And to all these employments, justly and industriously followed, Almighty God hath annexed a blessing; for they conduce to the good of mankind, and the maintenance of human societies, and the convenient support of persons and families.

And when you come to about this age, unless you are corrupted by idleness, evil company or debauchery, your minds will begin to settle, and your inclinations will begin to bend themselves towards some of these employments, and to a steady course of life. And although it may please God to order things so that you may not be put upon the necessity to take any of these professions upon you for your subsistence, because I may leave you a competent provision otherways, yet assure yourselves a calling is so far from being a burthen or dishonor to any of you, that it will be a great advantage to you every way to be of some profession; and therefore I commend some of them to your choice, especially for such of you whose fortunes may not be so plentiful.

But if you should not fix to any of these more regular professions, as divinity, law, or physic, yet I would have you so far acquainted with them, as that you may be able to understand, and maintain, and hold fast, the religion in which you have by me been educated; and so much of the laws of the kingdom, as may instruct you how to defend the estate that shall be left you, and to order your lives conformable to those laws under which you live, and to give at least common advice to your neighbors in matters of ordinary or common concernment; and so much of physic, especially of anatomy, as may make you know your own frame, and maintain and preserve your health by good diet, and those ordinary helps, a good herbal or garden may afford.

And although you should not addict yourselves professedly to any of these three callings, yet I would have you all acquainted with husbandry, planting and ordering of a country farm, which is the most innocent, and yet most necessary employment, and such as becomes the best gentleman in England; for it is a miserable thing to see a man master of an estate in lands, and yet not know how to manage it, but must either be at the mercy of tenants or servants, or otherwise he knows not how to live, being utterly a stranger to husbandry; and therefore must be beholden to a tenant or a servant for his subsistence, who many times knowing their own advantage, by the ignorance, carelessness or idleness of a master or landlord, set the dice upon him, and use him as they please. I have always observed, a country gentleman that hath a competent estate of lands in his hands, and lives upon it, stocks it himself, and understands it, and manages it in his own hands, lives more plentifully, breeds up his children more handsomely, and in a way of industry, is better loved in his country, and doth

more good in it, than he that hath twice the revenue and lives upon his rents, or it may be in the city, whereby both himself, and family, and children, learn a life of idleness and expense, and many times of debauchery. And therefore if you can not settle your minds to any other profession, yet I would have you be acquainted with the course of husbandry, and manage at least some considerable part of your estate in your own hands. And this you may do without any disparagement, for the life of a husbandman is not unseemly for any of the children of Adam or Noah, who began it; and although that employment requires attendance and industry, as well as knowledge and experience, yet it will afford a man competent time for such other studies and employments as may become a scholar or a gentleman, a good patriot or justice in his country.

Though all callings and employments carry with them a gratefulness and contenting variety much more than idleness and intemperance, or debauchery, yet in whatsoever calling you are settled, though that calling must be your principal business, and such as you must principally apply yourselves unto, yet I thought it always necessary to have some innocent diversions for leisure times; because it takes off the tediousness of business, and prevents a worse mispending of the time. I therefore commend to those gentlemen, of what profession soever, that they spend their spare and leisure hours in reading of history or mathematics, in experimental philosophy, in searching out the kinds and natures of trees and plants, herbs, flowers, and other vegetables; nay, in observing of insects, in mathematical observations, in measuring land; nay, in the more cleanly exercise of smithery, watch-making, carpentry, joinery works of all sorts. These and the like innocent diversions give these advantages:— 1. They improve a man's knowledge and understanding; 2. They render him fit for many employments of use; 3. They take off the tediousness of one employment; 4. They prevent diversions of worse kinds, as going to taverns, or games, and the like; 5. They rob no time from your constant calling, but only spend with usefulness and delight that time that can be well spared.



## V. CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISION RESPECTING EDUCATION.

### DATE AND ABSTRACT OF EACH CONSTITUTION.

State.	Date.		Abstract of present constitutional provision.	Page.
	First constitution.	Education recognized.		
Massachusetts...	1780	1780	Cambridge University ; duty to cherish literature, arts, science.....	83
Connecticut .....	1818	1818	Yale College ; interest of school fund for equal benefit of all .....	88
New Hampshire ..	1784	1784	Duty to promote literature, arts, and science.....	90
Vermont.....	1777	1793	Town and county grammar schools ....	90
Maine .....	1820	1820	Towns at own expense to support schools ; colleges encouraged.....	91
Rhode Island....	1842	1842	Schools to be promoted ; school fund not to be borrowed.....	91
New York.....	1777	1822	Common school fund ; literature fund ; \$25,000 of deposit fund annually appropriated .....	92
New Jersey .....	1776	1844	School fund not to be borrowed ; income for equal benefit of all .....	92
Pennsylvania ...	1776	1790	Legislature to establish schools and promote arts and science.....	93
Delaware .....	1776	1831	Legislature to establish schools and promote arts and science.....	94
Maryland .....	1776	1864	Superintendent ; board of education ; school fund .....	97
Virginia .....	1776	1851	Capitation tax on white males.....	94
North Carolina...	1776	1776	Schools at low prices ; universities .....	98
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Georgia .....	1777	1798	Legislature to provide education for the people and endow university.....	99
Kentucky .....	1790	1850	Superintendent ; each county to have proportion of school fund .....	100
Tennessee .....	1796	1835	Principal of school fund inviolate ; commissioners .....	100
Ohio .....	1802	1802	Schools to be provided by interest of fund and taxation .....	101
Louisiana .....	1812	1845	Superintendent ; free public schools.. university of New Orleans.....	102
Indiana.....	1816	1816	Superintendent ; schools equally open to all ; school fund .....	104
Mississippi .....	1817	1817	Schools to be encouraged.....	106
Illinois .....	1818	none.	.....	107

State.	Date.		Abstract of present constitutional provision.	Page.
	First constitution.	Education recognized.		
Alabama.....	1819	1819	Schools to be encouraged; university ..	107
Missouri.....	1820	1820	Superintendent; board of education; separate colored schools; university and school fund; no township receives money from school fund unless a school has been taught three months; new voters after 1866 to read and write....	108
Arkansas.....	1836	1836	Schools to be encouraged.....	110
Michigan.....	1837	1837	Superintendent; board of education; public schools kept at least three months annually; normal, agricultural, university, and benevolent schools.	110
Florida.....	1845	1845	School fund to be kept inviolate.....	112
Texas.....	1845	1845	Superintendent; board of education; school and university fund; tax levied on colored persons to be used for colored schools.....	113
Iowa.....	1846	1846	Board of education; school funds and school lands.....	115
Wisconsin.....	1848	1848	Superintendent; school fund; school libraries; towns to raise by taxation at least one half the sum annually received from school fund.....	117
California.....	1849	1849	Superintendent; school and university funds; public schools to be kept three months each year.....	119
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West Virginia...	1862	1863	Superintendent; school fund.....	122
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Nebraska.....	1867	1867	School lands not to be sold for less than \$5 per acre.....	124

## CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISION RESPECTING EDUCATION.

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The past and present constitutional provisions of the several States of the Union relative to education exhibit the growth of the national sentiment in favor of, and the present strong attachment to, the public school system. In the early reconstruction of political organizations, rendered imperative by a separation from Great Britain, only a few States recognized in their organic law the necessity of providing for the diffusion of intelligence among the people, and this recognition is expressed in general terms. But within the last half century the constitutions of the States, admitted from time to time in the Union, have become more and more emphatic in the declaration, that it is the wisest economy and the highest duty to provide for an efficient and uniform system of public schools.

The New England States having incorporated a public school system with their earliest organizations, in emerging from their colonial condition, had no occasion to provide specially for it in their first State constitutions.

### MASSACHUSETTS.

First settlement, 1620. Area 7,800 square miles.

#### POPULATION.

1790.....	378,717	1830.....	610,840
1800.....	423,245	1840.....	737,699
1810.....	472,040	1850.....	994,514
1820.....	523,827	1860.....	1,231,066

In 1636, six years after the first settlement of Boston, the General Court of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, which met in Boston on the 8th of September, passed an act appropriating £400 toward the establishment of a college. The sum thus appropriated was more than the whole tax levied on the colony at that time in a single year, and the population scattered through ten or twelve villages did not exceed five thousand persons; but among them were eminent graduates of the University of Cambridge, in England, and all were here for purposes of permanent settlement. In 1638 John Harvard left by will the sum of £779 in money, and a library of over three hundred books. In 1640, the General Court granted to the college the income of the Charlestown ferry; and in 1642, the Governor, with the magistrates and teachers and

elders were empowered to establish statutes and constitutions for the infant institution; and in 1650 a charter was granted, which was protected by an article in the constitution of 1780 and still remains the fundamental law of the oldest literary institution in this country.

In 1642 the attention of the General Court was turned to the subject of family instruction in the following enactment:

Forasmuch as the good education of children is of singular behoof and benefit to any commonwealth; and whereas many parents and masters are too indulgent and negligent of their duty in this kind:

*It is therefore ordered by this Court and the authority thereof,* That the selectmen of every town, in the several precincts and quarters where they dwell, shall have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors, to see, first, that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families, as not to endeavor to teach, by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue, and knowledge of the capital laws, upon penalty of twenty shillings for each neglect therein; also, that all masters of families do, once a week, at least, catechise their children and servants in the grounds and principles of religion, and if any be unable to do so much, that then, at the least, they procure such children or apprentices to learn some short orthodox catechism, without book, that they may be able to answer to the questions that shall be propounded to them out of such catechisms by their parents or masters, or any of the selectmen, where they shall call them to a trial of what they have learned in this kind; and further, that all parents and masters do breed and bring up their children and apprentices in some honest lawful calling, labor, or employment, either in husbandry or some other trade profitable for themselves and the commonwealth, if they will not nor cannot train them up in learning to fit them for higher employments; and if any of the selectmen, after admonition by them given to such masters of families, shall find them still negligent of their duty in the particulars aforementioned, whereby children and servants become rude, stubborn, and unruly, the said selectmen, with the help of two magistrates, shall take such children or apprentices from them, and place them with some masters for years, boys till they come to twenty-one, and girls eighteen years of age complete, which will more strictly look unto and force them to submit unto government, according to the rules of this order, if by fair means and former instructions they will not be drawn unto it.

In the same year the following brief School Code was enacted:

• It being one chief project of that old deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures, as in former times, keeping them in an unknown tongue, so in these latter times, by persuading from the use of tongues, so that at least the true sense and meaning of the original might be clouded and corrupted with false glosses of deceivers; and to the end that learning may not be buried in the grave of our forefathers, in church and commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavors:

*It is therefore ordered by this Court and authority thereof,* That every township within this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased them to the number of fifth householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their town to teach all such children as shall resort to him, to write and read, whose wages shall be paid, either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in general, by way of supply, as the major part of those who order the prudentials of the town shall appoint; provided that those who send their children be not oppressed by paying much more than they can have them taught for in other towns.

*And it is further ordered,* That where any town shall increase to the number of one hundred families or householders, they shall set up a grammar school, the masters thereof being able to instruct youths so far as they may be fitted for the university, and if any other town neglect the performance hereof above one year, then every such town shall pay five pounds per annum to the next such school, till they shall perform this order.

With various modifications as to details, but with the same objects

steadily in view, viz., the exclusion of "barbarism" from every family by preventing its having even one untaught and idle child or apprentice, the maintenance of an elementary school in every neighborhood where there were children enough to constitute a school, and of a Latin school in every large town, and of a college for higher culture for the whole colony, the colonial legislature, and the people in the several towns in Massachusetts, maintained an educational system, which, although not as early or as thorough as the school code of Saxony and Wirtemberg, has expanded with the growth of the community in population, wealth, and industrial development, and stimulated and shaped the legislation of other States in behalf of universal education.

The article on education in the constitution of 1780 was one of the first ever incorporated into the organic law of a State. Section 2, making imperative on legislators and magistrates to encourage the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries of them, was framed by John Adams, and has been retained until this day without the slightest alteration.

*The University at Cambridge, and Encouragement of Literature, etc.*

SECTION I.—THE UNIVERSITY.

ART. 1. Whereas our wise and pious ancestors, so early as the year one thousand six hundred and thirty-six, laid the foundation of Harvard College, in which university many persons of great eminence have, by the blessing of God, been initiated into those arts and sciences which qualified them for public employments, both in church and state; and whereas the encouragement of the arts and sciences, and all good literature, tends to the honor of God, the advantage of the Christian religion, and the great benefit of this and the other United States of America; it is declared that the president and fellows of Harvard College, in their corporate capacity, and their successors in that capacity, their officers and servants, shall have, hold, use, exercise, and enjoy all the powers, authorities, rights, liberties, privileges, immunities, and franchises which they now have, or are entitled to have, hold, use, exercise, and enjoy; and the same are hereby ratified and confirmed unto them, the said president and fellows of Harvard College, and to their successors, and to their officers and servants, respectively, forever.

2. And whereas there have been, at sundry times, by divers persons, gifts, grants, devises of houses, lands, tenements, goods, chattels, legacies, and conveyances, heretofore made, either to Harvard College, in Cambridge, in New England, or to the president and fellows of Harvard College, or to the said college by some other description, under several charters successively—it is declared, that all the said gifts, grants, devises, legacies, and conveyances are hereby forever confirmed unto the president and fellows of Harvard College, and to their successors in the capacity aforesaid, according to the true intent and meaning of the donor or donors, grantor and grantors, deviser and devisors.

3. And whereas, by an act of the general court of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, passed in the year one thousand six hundred and forty-two, the governor and deputy governor for the time being, and all the magistrates of that jurisdiction, were, with the president and a number of the clergy in the said act described, constituted the overseers of Harvard College; and it being necessary in this new constitution of government to ascertain who shall be deemed successors to the said governor, deputy governor, and magistrates, it is declared that the governor, lieutenant governor, council, and senate of this commonwealth are and shall be deemed their successors; who, with the president of Harvard College for the time

being, together with the ministers of the Congregational churches in the towns of Cambridge, Watertown, Charlestown, Boston, Roxbury, and Dorchester, mentioned in the said act, shall be, and hereby are, vested with all the powers and authority belonging or in any way appertaining to the overseers of Harvard College: *Provided*, That nothing herein shall be construed to prevent the legislature of this commonwealth from making such alterations in the government of the said university as shall be conducive to its advantage, and the interest of the republic of letters, in as full a manner as might have been done by the legislature of the late province of Massachusetts Bay.

#### SECTION II.—THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF LITERATURE.

Wisdom and knowledge, as well as virtue, diffused generally among the body of the people, being necessary for the preservation of their rights and liberties, and as these depend on spreading the opportunities and advantages of education in the various parts of the country, and among the different orders of the people, it shall be the duty of the legislatures and magistrates, in all future periods of this commonwealth, to cherish the interest of literature and the sciences and all seminaries of them, especially the university at Cambridge, public schools, and grammar schools in the towns; to encourage private societies and public institutions, by rewards and immunities for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trades, manufactures, and a natural history of the country; to countenance and inculcate the principles of humanity and general benevolence, public and private charity, industry and frugality, honesty and punctuality in all their dealings; sincerity, good humor, and all social affections and generous sentiments among the people.

The history of the influences that led to the introduction of section second of this article was given by Mr. Adams in 1809. (Works iv, p. 259.)

"In travelling from Boston to Philadelphia in 1774-5-6-7, I had several times amused myself at Norwalk, Connecticut, with the very curious collection of birds and insects of American production made by Mr. Arnold, a collection which he afterwards sold to Governor Tryon, who sold it to Sir Ashton Lever, in whose apartments in London I afterwards viewed it again. This collection was so singular a thing that it made a deep impression on me, and I could not but consider it a reproach to my country that so little was known even to herself of her natural history.

"When I was in Europe in the years 1778 and 1779, in the commission to the King of France with Dr. Franklin and Mr. Arthur Lee, I had opportunity to see the King's collection and many others, which increased my wishes that nature might be examined and studied in my own country as it was in others.

"In France, among the academicians and other men of science and letters, I was frequently entertained with inquiries concerning the Philosophical Society at Philadelphia, and with eulogiums on the wisdom of that institution and encomiums on some publications of their transactions.



"These conversations suggested to me the idea of such an establishment in Boston, where I knew there was as much love of science, and as many gentlemen capable of pursuing it, as in any other city of its size.

"In 1779 I returned to Boston in the French frigate, *La Sensible*, with the Chevalier de la Luzerne and Mr. Marbois. The corporation of Harvard College gave a public dinner in honor of the French ambassador and his suite, and did me the honor of an invitation to dine with them.

"At the table, in the philosophy chamber, I chanced to sit next to Dr. Cooper. I entertained him during the whole of the time we were together with an account of Arnold's collections I had seen in Europe, the compliments I had heard in France upon the Philosophical Society at Philadelphia, and concluded with proposing that the future legislature of Massachusetts should institute an academy of arts and sciences.

"The doctor at first hesitated, thought it would be difficult to find members who would attend to it; but his principal objection was that it would injure Harvard College by setting up a rival to it that might draw the attention and affections of the people in some degree from it. To this I answered: first, that there were certainly men of learning enough that might compose a society sufficiently numerous; and, secondly, that instead of being a rival to the university, it would be an honor and advantage to it. That the president and principal professors would undoubtedly be always members of it, and the meetings might be ordered wholly or in part at the college, and in that room. The doctor at length appeared better satisfied, and I entreated him to propagate the idea and the plan as far and as soon as his discretion would justify. The Doctor accordingly did diffuse the project so judiciously and effectually that the first legislature under the constitution adopted and established it by law.\*

"Afterwards, when attending the convention for framing the constitution, I mentioned the subject to several of the members, and when I was appointed by the sub-committee to make a draught of a project of a constitution to be laid before the convention, my mind and heart were so full of the subject I inserted chapter v, section 2.

"I was somewhat apprehensive that criticism and objection would be made to the section, and particularly that the 'natural history' and the 'good humor' would be stricken out, but the whole was received very kindly, and passed the convention unanimously without amendment."

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\* American Academy of Arts and Sciences, incorporated May 4, 1780.

The following article was ratified by the people of Massachusetts in 1857, as an amendment to the Constitution.

ART. XX. No person shall have the right to vote, or be eligible to office under the constitution of this Commonwealth, who shall not be able to read the constitution in the English language and write his name: *provided, however*, that the provisions of this amendment shall not apply to any person prevented by a physical disability from complying with its requisitions, nor to any person who now has the right to vote, nor to any persons who shall be sixty years of age or upwards at the time this amendment shall take effect.

#### CONNECTICUT.

Settled in 1633. Area, 4,674 square miles.

#### POPULATION.

1790.....	238, 141	1830.....	297, 675
1800.....	251, 002	1840.....	309, 978
1810.....	262, 042	1850.....	370, 792
1820.....	275, 202	1860.....	460, 147

In the towns of Hartford and New Haven, settled in 1636 and 1638, as well as in towns settled afterwards, the public school was one of the earliest subjects of municipal legislation in Hartford in 1638, and in New Haven in 1639, as much as the roads and bridges, the support of public worship, and protection against the Indians.

In the body of laws for the government of the commonwealth, known as the code of 1650, the provisions for the family instruction of children, and the maintenance of schools by towns, are identically the same as in Massachusetts, and remained on the statute book, with slight modifications to give them more efficiency, for two hundred years.

In the chapter respecting schools, it is commended to "every family," which is able and willing, "to give yearly but the fourth part of a bushel of corn, or something equivalent thereto, for the advancement of learning by the college at Cambridge;" which practice was continued until ten of the principal ministers, in 1700, brought each a number of books to found a college in Connecticut.

As early as 1701 the system of public instruction in Connecticut so far matured as to embrace the following particulars:

1. An obligation on every parent and guardian of children "not to suffer so much barbarism, in any of their families, as to have a single child or apprentice unable to read the holy word of God, and the good laws of the colony;" and also "to bring them up to some lawful calling or employment," under a penalty for each offence.

2. A tax of forty shillings on every thousand pounds of the lists of estates was collected in every town with annual State tax, and payable

proportionably to those towns only which should establish their schools according to law.

3. A common school in every town having over seventy families, kept for at least six months in a year.

4. A grammar school in each of the four head county towns, to fit youth for college.

5. A collegiate school, toward which the General Court made an annual appropriation of £120.

6. Provision for the religious instruction of the Indians.

The system, therefore, embraced every family and town, all classes of children and youth, and all the then recognized grades of schools. There were no select or sectarian schools to classify society at the roots; but all children were regarded with equal favor, and all brought under the assimilating influence of early associations and similar school privileges.

Here was the foundation laid not only for universal education, but for a practical and social equality which has never been surpassed in the history of any other community.

In 1795 the legislature, after several years of discussion, set the example of establishing a permanent and irreducible fund, the income of which should be applied to the support of common or public schools, by appropriating for this purpose a portion of the Territory of Ohio, now known as the Connecticut Reserve, because it was reserved by the State for its own use, when it ceded its claim to the whole national domain beyond, of the same width as its own territory.

The colonial charter formed the basis of government until 1818, when a State constitution was adopted, which still exists, article eight of which protects both the college and the school fund.

#### ARTICLE VIII.—OF EDUCATION.

SEC. 1. The charter of Yale College, as modified by agreement with the corporation thereof, in pursuance of an act of the general assembly, passed in May, 1792, is hereby confirmed.

2. The fund called the *school fund* shall remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which shall be inviolably appropriated to the support and encouragement of the public or common schools throughout the State, and for the equal benefit of all the people thereof. The value and amount of said fund shall, as soon as practicable, be ascertained in such manner as the general assembly may prescribe, published, and recorded in the comptroller's office; and no law shall ever be made authorizing said fund to be diverted to any other use than the encouragement and support of public or common schools among the several school societies, as justice and equity shall require.

In 1855 the following amendment to the Constitution was adopted:

Every person shall be able to read any article of the Constitution, or any section of the statutes of this State, before being admitted as an elector.

## NEW HAMPSHIRE.

First settlement made in 1623. Area, 9,280 square miles.

## POPULATION.

1790.....	141,899	1830.....	269,328
1800.....	183,762	1840.....	284,574
1810.....	214,360	1850.....	317,796
1820.....	244,161	1860.....	326,073

First constitution was adopted in 1784, in which there is the following provision relative to the encouragement of literature :

## ENCOURAGEMENT OF LITERATURE, ETC.

Knowledge and learning, generally diffused through a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government ; and spreading the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the country, being highly conducive to promote this end, it shall be the duty of the legislators and magistrates, in all future periods of this government, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries and public schools, to encourage private and public institutions, rewards and immunities for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trades, manufactures, and natural history of the country ; to countenance and inculcate the principles of humanity and general benevolence, public and private charity, industry and economy, honesty and punctuality, sincerity, sobriety, and all social affections and generous sentiments, among the people.

This article in substance appears to have been copied from the constitution of Massachusetts, the alterations being only verbal.

In the constitution of 1792, which still exists, it was inserted without change.

## VERMONT.

Settled 1724-'31. Area, 9,056 square miles. Admitted as one of the United States of America in 1791.

## POPULATION.

1790.....	85,416	1830.....	280,652
1800.....	162,101	1840.....	291,948
1810.....	217,713	1850.....	314,120
1820.....	235,764	1860.....	315,098

The first constitution was formed in 1777, and the second in 1793, which is still in force, article forty-one of which declares—

Laws for the encouragement of virtue and prevention of vice and immorality ought to be constantly kept in force, and duly executed ; and a competent number of schools ought to be maintained in each town, for the convenient instruction of youth, and one or more grammar schools be incorporated and properly supported in each county in this State. And all religious societies or bodies of men, that may be hereafter united or incorporated for the advancement of religion and learning, or for other charitable purposes, shall be encouraged and protected in the enjoyment of the privileges, immunities, and estates which they in justice ought to enjoy, under such regulations as the general assembly of this State shall direct.

MAINE.

Settled in 1624. Area, 31,766 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1820.

POPULATION.

1790.....	96,540	1830.....	399,455
1800.....	151,719	1840.....	501,793
1810.....	228,705	1850.....	583,169
1820.....	298,335	1860.....	628,279

The constitution adopted in 1820 has an article relating to

LITERATURE.

A general diffusion of the advantages of education being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, to promote this important object the legislature is authorized, and it shall be its duty, to require the several towns to make suitable provision, at their own expense, for the support and maintenance of public schools; and it shall further be their duty to encourage and suitably endow, from time to time, as the circumstances of the people may authorize, all academies, colleges, and seminaries of learning within the State: *Provided*, That no donation, grant, or endowment shall at any time be made by the legislature to any literary institution now established, or which may hereafter be established, unless at the time of making such endowment the legislature of the State shall have the right to grant any further powers to alter, limit, or restrain any of the powers vested in any such literary institution as shall be judged necessary to promote the best interests thereof.

RHODE ISLAND.

Settled in 1631. Area, 1,306 square miles.

POPULATION.

1790.....	69,110	1830.....	97,199
1800.....	69,122	1840.....	108,130
1810.....	77,031	1850.....	147,545
1820.....	83,059	1860.....	174,620

The colonial charter remained in force until 1842, when a constitution was adopted by the people.

The provision relative to education is as follows:

ARTICLE XII.—OF EDUCATION.

SEC. 1. The diffusion of knowledge as well as of virtue among the people being essential to the preservation of their rights and liberties, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to promote public schools, and to adopt all means which they may deem necessary and proper to secure to the people the advantages and opportunities of education.

2. The money which now is, or which may hereafter be, appropriated by law for the establishment of a permanent fund for the support of public schools, shall be securely invested and remain a perpetual fund for that purpose.

3. All donations for the support of public schools, or for other purposes of education, which may be received by the General Assembly, shall be applied according to the terms prescribed by the donors.

4. The General Assembly shall make all necessary provisions by law for carrying this article into effect. They shall not divert said money or fund from the aforesaid uses, nor borrow, appropriate, nor use the same, or any part thereof, for any other purpose, under any pretence whatever.

## NEW YORK.

Settled in 1609 by the Dutch. Area, 46,000 square miles.

## POPULATION.

1790.....	340,120	1830.....	1,918,608
1800.....	586,756	1840.....	2,428,921
1810.....	959,049	1850.....	3,007,394
1820.....	1,372,812	1860.....	3,880,735

The first constitution was adopted in 1777, in which is no reference to schools; the second, in 1822, in which it was provided in article seventh, section five, that—

“The proceeds of all lands belonging to this State, except such parts thereof as may be reserved or appropriated to public use, or ceded to the United States, which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, shall remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which shall be inviolably appropriated and applied to the support of common schools.”

The third constitution was adopted in 1846, and the provision therein for education is comprised in article ninth.

SEC. 1. The capital of the common school fund, the capital of the literature fund, and the capital of the United States deposit fund, shall be respectively preserved inviolate. The revenues of the said common school fund shall be applied to the support of common schools; the revenues of the said literature fund shall be applied to the support of academies, and the sum of twenty-five thousand dollars of the revenues of the United States deposit fund shall each year be appropriated to and made a part of the capital of the said common school fund.

## NEW JERSEY

First settlement in 1627. Area, 8,320 square miles.

## POPULATION.

1790.....	184,139	1830.....	320,893
1800.....	211,549	1840.....	373,366
1810.....	245,555	1850.....	489,555
1820.....	277,577	1860.....	672,035

The first constitution was adopted in 1776, and the second in 1844, in which is this provision for education :

## SECTION VII.—ARTICLE 6.

The fund for the support of free schools, and all money, stock, and other property which may hereafter be appropriated for that purpose, or received into the treasury under the provision of any law heretofore passed to augment the said fund should be securely invested, and remain a perpetual fund; and the income hereof, except so much as it may be judged expedient to apply to an increase of



the capital, shall be annually appropriated to the support of public schools, for the equal benefit of all the people of the State; and it shall not be competent for the Legislature to borrow, appropriate, or use the said fund, or any part thereof, for any other purpose, under any pretence whatever.

# PENNSYLVANIA.

Settled by the Swedes in 1631. Area, 46,000 square miles

## POPULATION.

1790.....	434,373	1830.....	1,348,233
1800.....	602,361	1840.....	1,724,033
1810.....	810,091	1850.....	2,311,786
1820.....	1,049,058	1860.....	2,906,215

First constitution was adopted in 1776. The second, in 1790, in which the subject of education was recognized, contains two brief sections on the subject, under

## ARTICLE VII.

SECTION 1. The legislature shall, as soon as conveniently may be, provide by law for the establishment of schools throughout the State, in such manner that the poor may be taught gratis.

SECTION 2. The arts and sciences shall be promoted in one or more seminaries of learning.

In the convention of 1838, Mr. Bedford, of Luzerne, offered an amendment to the provision of the constitution of 1790, so that it would read—

“The legislature shall continue to provide by law for the establishment of common schools throughout the State in such a manner that all persons residing therein may enjoy the benefits of education.”

The following remarks were made at the time of offering the resolution :

“I am aware that many gentlemen who occupy seats upon this floor deem such a constitutional provision unnecessary, because, as they assert, the legislature may at any time make suitable enactments upon the subject. But the law that is passed this year may be repealed the next; so that our school system, which is the basis of the intelligence of the people, must be liable to change with the political policy of our law makers, and thereby be liable to perpetual fluctuation and enactments, etc.”

At that time there was not the interest in popular education in Pennsylvania that now exists, and the amendment was not carried; and the constitution of 1838 on the subject of education has the same language as that of 1790.

## DELAWARE.

Settled in 1627. Area, 2,120 square miles.

## POPULATION.

1790 .....	59,096	1830 .....	76,748
1800 .....	64,273	1840 .....	78,085
1810 .....	72,674	1850 .....	91,532
1820 .....	72,749	1860 .....	112,216

In the first constitution, adopted 1776, there is no provision for education ; but as amended in 1831, the Legislature is instructed "to provide by law" "for establishing schools, and promoting arts and sciences."

## VIRGINIA.

Settled in 1607. Area, 38,352 square miles.

## POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1790.....	442,115	12,766	293,427	748,308
1800.....	514,230	30,124	345,796	880,200
1810.....	551,534	30,570	392,518	974,622
1820.....	603,087	36,889	425,153	1,065,129
1830.....	694,300	47,348	469,757	1,211,405
1840.....	740,858	49,852	449,087	1,239,797
1850.....	894,800	54,332	472,529	1,422,661
1860.....	1,047,411	58,042	490,865	1,596,318

Previous to the Revolution, the public school system had not obtained root beyond the limits of the eastern States. The township and district school organizations of New England had, however, excited the admiration of Wythe, Jefferson, and other eminent Virginia statesmen.

Patrick Henry wrote to John Adams: "It shall be my incessant study so to form our portrait of government that a kindred with New England may be discerned in it; and if all your excellencies cannot be preserved, yet I hope to retain so much of the likeness that posterity shall pronounce us descended from the same stock." Richard Bland Lee, at a later period, on the floor of Congress, spoke of "the forefathers of New England, who have established the wisest institutions for the perpetuation of human liberty and human happiness the world has seen." \* Debate on Madison's resolutions, Jan. 20, 1794.

Such views having been cordially entertained, it was not surprising that Jefferson, as one of those appointed by Virginia, after the Declara-

\* Wansley's Excursion to the United States. 1794.

tion of Independence by the Colonies, to prepare a code of laws adapted to the altered condition of that commonwealth, should strive to introduce the New England system of common schools.

The year that the first constitution was formed, a committee was appointed to prepare a code of laws adapted to the altered condition of affairs.

In 1779 Wythe and Jefferson made a report, in which was a full chapter from the pen of Jefferson on public schools. The caption was—

A BILL for the more general diffusion of knowledge.

SECTION 1. Whereas it appeareth that however certain forms of government are better calculated than others to protect individuals in the free exercise of their natural rights, and are at the same time themselves better guarded against degeneracy, yet experience hath shown, that even under the best forms those intrusted with power have in time, and by slow operations, perverted it into tyranny; and it is believed that the most effectual means of preventing this would be to illuminate, as far as practicable, the minds of the people at large, and more especially to give them knowledge of those facts which history exhibiteth, that, possessed thereby of the experience of other ages and countries, they may be enabled to know ambition under all its shapes, and prompt to exert their natural powers to defeat its purposes; and whereas it is generally true that the people will be happiest whose laws are best, and are best administered, and that laws will be wisely formed and honestly administered in proportion as those who form and administer them are wise and honest: whence it becomes expedient for promoting the public happiness, that those persons whom nature hath endowed with genius and virtue should be rendered, by liberal education, worthy to receive, and able to guard the sacred deposit of the rights and liberties of their fellow-citizens, and that they should be called to the charge without regard to wealth, birth, or other accidental condition or circumstance. But the indigence of the greater number, disabling them from so educating at their own expense those of their children whom nature hath fitly formed and disposed to become useful instruments of the public, it is better that such should be sought for and educated at the common expense of all, than that the happiness of all should be confided to the weak or wicked.

The succeeding sections provided that each county should be divided in convenient districts for public schools. "At every one of these schools," in the language of the bill, "shall be taught reading, writing, common arithmetic; and the books which shall be used therein for instructing the children to read shall be such as will, at the same time, make them acquainted with Grecian, Roman, English, and American history."

It was also provided that over every ten of these schools an overseer should be appointed annually, by the aldermen, to select teachers, to visit the schools, to direct in the choice of reading books, and superintend the teachers.

The superintendents were to meet in convention, and establish at central points a certain number of grammar schools, in which were to be taught Latin, Greek, grammar, geography, and higher arithmetic.

The most needy and meritorious scholar from a grammar school district was to be educated at the expense of the State, and one scholar

was to be selected from the grammar schools to be educated gratuitously at college.

Five years after the bill in manuscript was presented, it was printed by order of the assembly of 1784.

Jefferson says: "One provision of the bill was that the expenses of the schools should be borne by the inhabitants of the county, every one in proportion to his general tax rate. This would throw on wealth the education of the poor."

In 1796 the assembly acted upon the bill, but inserted a provision leaving to each county court to declare when the act should go into operation within the limits of its jurisdiction, which, adds Jefferson, "completely defeated it. The justices being generally of the more wealthy class, were unwilling to incur the burden, and I believe it was not suffered to commence in a single county."

His interest in common schools never flagged, although his native State could not be aroused to its best interests, and in a letter to Hon. Joseph C. Cabell, dated November 28, 1820, he says:

"Surely Governor Clinton's display of the gigantic effort of New York towards the educating of her citizens will stimulate the pride, as well as the patriotism, of our legislature to look to the reputation and safety of our country, to rescue it from the degradation of becoming the Barbary of the Union, and of falling into the ranks of even our negroes. To that condition it is fast sinking. We shall be in the hands of the other States what our indigenous predecessors were when surrounded by the sciences and arts of Europe. The success of education before the Revolution placed her with the foremost of the sister colonies. What is her education now? Where is it? The little we have we import, like beggars, from other States, or import the beggars, to bestow on us their miserable crumbs."

The first constitution was adopted in 1776, second in 1830, third in 1851, and fourth in 1864.

In the constitution adopted in 1830 there is no reference to education, but in that of 1851 is the following provision:

A capitation tax, equal to the tax assessed on land of the value of two hundred dollars, shall be levied on every white male inhabitant who has attained the age of twenty-one years; and one equal moiety of the capitation tax upon white persons shall be applied to the purposes of education in primary and free schools; but nothing herein contained shall prevent exemptions of taxable polls in cases of bodily infirmity.

In the revision of 1864, this provision is retained in the twenty-second article.

## MARYLAND.

Settled in 1634. Area, 9,356 square miles.

## POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1790.....	208,649	8,043	103,036	319,728
1800.....	246,326	19,587	105,635	341,548
1810.....	235,117	33,927	111,502	380,546
1820.....	260,223	39,730	107,397	407,350
1830.....	291,108	52,938	102,994	447,040
1840.....	318,204	62,078	89,737	470,019
1850.....	417,943	74,723	90,368	583,034
1860.....	515,918	83,942	87,189	687,049

The first constitution was adopted in 1776; the second in 1851; and the third in 1864. The first provision on education is in that of 1864, and is as follows:

## ARTICLE VIII—EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. The governor shall within thirty days after the ratification by the people of this constitution appoint, subject to the confirmation of the senate at its first session thereafter, a State superintendent of public instruction, who shall hold his office for five years, and until his successor shall have been appointed and shall have been qualified. He shall receive an annual salary of twenty-five hundred dollars, and such additional sum for travelling and incidental expenses as the general assembly may by law provide; shall report to the general assembly within thirty days after the commencement of its first session under this constitution, a uniform system of free public schools, and shall perform such other duties pertaining to his office as may from time to time be prescribed by law.

SECTION 2. There shall be a State board of education, consisting of the governor, the lieutenant governor, the speaker of the house of delegates, and the State superintendent of public instruction, which board shall perform such duties as the general assembly may direct.

SECTION 3. There shall be in each county such number of school commissioners as the State superintendent of public instruction shall deem necessary, who shall be appointed by the State board of education; shall hold office for four years, and shall perform such duties and receive such compensation as the general assembly or State superintendent may direct; the school commissioners of Baltimore city shall remain as at present constituted, and shall be appointed as at present, by the mayor and city council, subject to such alterations and amendments as may be made from time to time by the general assembly, or the said mayor and city council.

SECTION 4. The general assembly, at its first session after the adoption of this constitution, shall provide a uniform system of free public schools, by which a school shall be kept open and supported free of expense for tuition in each school district, for at least six months in each year; and in case of failure on the part of the general assembly to provide, the system reported to it by the State superintendent of public instruction shall become the system of free public schools of the State: *Provided*, That the report of the State superintendent shall be in conformity with the provisions of this constitution, and such system shall be subject to such alterations, conformable to this article, as the general assembly may from time to time enact.

SECTION 5. The general assembly shall levy at each regular session after the adoption of this constitution, an annual tax of not less than ten cents on each

hundred dollars of taxable property throughout the State, for the support of free public schools, which tax shall be collected at the same time and by the same agents as the general State levy; and shall be paid into the treasury of the State, and shall be distributed under such regulations as may be prescribed by law, among the counties and the city of Baltimore, in proportion to their respective population between the ages of five and twenty years: *Provided*, That the general assembly shall not levy any additional school tax upon particular counties, unless such county express by popular vote its desire for such tax; the city of Baltimore shall provide for its additional school tax as at present, or as may hereafter be provided by the general assembly, or by the mayor and city council of Baltimore.

SECTION 6. The general assembly shall further provide by law, at its first session after the adoption of this constitution, a fund for the support of the free public schools of the State, by the imposition of an annual tax of not less than five cents on each one hundred dollars of taxable property throughout the State, the proceeds of which tax shall be known as the public school fund, and shall be invested by the treasurer, together with its annual interest, until such time as said fund shall by its own increase and any addition which may be made to it from time to time, together with the present school fund, amount to six millions of dollars, when the tax of ten cents on the hundred dollars, authorized by the preceding section, may be discontinued in whole or in part as the general assembly may direct; the principal fund of six millions, hereby provided, shall remain forever inviolate as the free public school fund of the State, and the annual interest of said school fund shall be disbursed for educational purposes only, as may be prescribed by law.

In the constitution just formed and to be submitted to the people on the eighteenth of September for adoption or rejection, there is the following:

#### ARTICLE VIII.

##### EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. The General Assembly, at its first session after the adoption of this constitution, shall, by law, establish throughout the State a thorough and efficient system of Free Public Schools, and shall provide, by taxation or otherwise, for their maintenance.

SEC. 2. The system of Public Schools, as now constituted, shall remain in force until the end of the said first session of the General Assembly, and shall then expire, except so far as adopted or continued by the General Assembly.

SEC. 3. The school fund of the State shall be kept inviolate, and appropriated only to the purposes of education.

#### NORTH CAROLINA.

Settled in 1653. Area, 45,000 square miles.

##### POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1790.....	288,204	4,975	100,572	393,751
1800.....	337,764	7,043	133,296	478,103
1810.....	376,410	10,266	168,824	555,500
1820.....	419,200	14,612	205,217	638,829
1830.....	472,843	19,543	245,661	737,987
1840.....	484,870	22,732	245,817	753,419
1850.....	553,028	27,463	288,548	869,039
1860.....	631,000	30,463	331,059	992,622





# CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISION RESPECTING EDUCATION. 99

In the constitution of 1776 it was declared in article forty-one that—

A school or schools shall be established by the legislature, for the convenient instruction of youth, with such salaries to the masters, paid by the public, as may enable them to instruct at low prices; and all useful learning shall be duly encouraged and promoted in one or more universities.

The same provision has been retained without amendment until the present time.

## SOUTH CAROLINA.

Settled in 1670. Area, 24,800 square miles.

### POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1790.....	140,178	1,801	107,094	249,073
1800.....	196,255	3,185	146,151	345,591
1810.....	214,196	4,554	196,365	415,105
1820.....	237,440	6,822	258,475	502,741
1830.....	257,863	7,921	315,401	581,185
1840.....	259,084	8,276	327,038	594,398
1850.....	274,563	8,960	384,984	668,507
1860.....	291,388	9,914	402,406	703,708

A constitution was formed in 1776, which was amended in 1778, 1790, and in 1865, but no provision was incorporated relative to education or the encouragement of learning.

## GEORGIA.

Settled in 1733. Area, 58,000 square miles.

### POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1790.....	52,886	398	29,264	82,548
1800.....	101,678	1,019	59,404	162,101
1810.....	145,414	1,801	105,218	252,433
1820.....	189,564	1,767	149,656	340,987
1830.....	294,806	2,484	217,531	514,821
1840.....	407,695	2,753	280,944	691,392
1850.....	521,572	2,931	381,682	906,185
1860.....	591,588	3,500	462,198	1,057,286

First constitution formed in 1777; the second in 1785; the third in 1798, which was amended in 1839.

The provision relative to seminaries of learning in that of 1798 was retained in the amended constitution of 1839. It is in these words:

13. The arts and sciences shall be promoted, in one or more seminaries of learning; and the legislature shall, as soon as conveniently may be, give such further donations and privileges to those already established, as may be necessary to secure the objects of their institution; and it shall be the duty of the general assembly, at their next session, to provide effectual measures for the improvement and permanent security of the funds and endowments of such institutions.

In the Constitution of 1865, the educational provision was omitted.

#### KENTUCKY.

Settled in 1775. Area, 37,680 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1792.

#### POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1790.....	61,133	114	11,830	73,077
1800.....	179,871	741	40,343	220,955
1810.....	324,237	1,713	80,561	406,511
1820.....	434,644	2,941	126,732	564,317
1830.....	517,787	4,917	165,213	687,917
1840.....	590,253	7,317	182,258	779,828
1850.....	761,413	10,011	210,981	982,405
1860.....	919,517	10,684	225,483	1,155,684

First constitution adopted in 1790; second in 1799; and the third in 1850. Article eleventh of the last pertains to education:

#### ARTICLE XI.—CONCERNING EDUCATION.

SEC. 1. The capital of the fund called and known as the "Common School Fund," consisting of one million two hundred and twenty-five thousand seven hundred and sixty-eight dollars and forty-two cents, for which bonds have been executed by the State to the board of education, and seventy-three thousand five hundred dollars of stock in the Bank of Kentucky; also, the sum of fifty-one thousand two hundred and twenty-three dollars and twenty-nine cents, balance of interest on the school fund for the year 1848, unexpended, together with any sum which may be hereafter raised in the State by taxation, or otherwise, for purposes of education, shall be held inviolate, for the purpose of sustaining a system of common schools. The interest and dividends of said funds, together with any sum which may be produced for that purpose by taxation or otherwise, may be appropriated in aid of common schools, but for no other purpose. The general assembly shall invest said fifty-one thousand two hundred and twenty-three dollars and twenty-nine cents in some safe and profitable manner; and any portion of the interest and dividends of said school fund, or other money, or property raised for school purposes, which may not be needed in sustaining common schools, shall be invested in like manner. The general assembly shall make provision, by law, for the payment of the interest of said school fund: *Provided*, That each county shall be entitled to its proportion of the income of said fund, and if not called for, for common school purposes, it shall be reinvested from time to time for the benefit of such county.

SEC. 2. A superintendent of public instruction shall be elected by the qualified voters of this commonwealth, at the same time the governor is elected, who shall hold his office for four years, and his duties and salary shall be prescribed and fixed by law.

CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISION RESPECTING EDUCATION. 101

TENNESSEE.

Settled in 1765. Area, 45,600 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1796.

POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1790.....	32,013	361	3,417	35,791
1800.....	91,709	309	13,584	105,602
1810.....	215,875	1,317	44,535	261,727
1820.....	339,927	2,779	80,107	422,813
1830.....	535,746	4,555	141,603	681,904
1840.....	640,627	5,524	183,059	829,210
1850.....	756,836	6,422	239,459	1,002,717
1860.....	826,828	7,235	275,784	1,109,847

First constitution adopted in 1796, which was amended in 1835.

Article eleventh, section ten, of the latter is as follows :

10. Knowledge, learning, and virtue being essential to the preservation of republican institutions, and the diffusion of the opportunities and advantages of education throughout the different portions of the State being highly conducive to the promotion of this end, it shall be the duty of the general assembly, in all future periods of this government, to cherish literature and science. And the fund called the *common school fund*, and all the lands and proceeds thereof, dividends, stocks, and other property of every description whatever, heretofore by law appropriated by the general assembly of this State for the use of common schools, and all such as shall hereafter be appropriated, shall remain a *perpetual fund*, the principal of which shall never be diminished by legislative appropriation, and the interest thereof shall be inviolably appropriated to the support and encouragement of common schools throughout the State, and for the equal benefit of all the people thereof; and no law shall be made authorizing said fund, or any part thereof, to be diverted to any other use than the support and encouragement of common schools; and it shall be the duty of the general assembly to appoint a board of commissioners, for such term of time as they may think proper, who shall have the general superintendence of said fund, and who shall make a report of the condition of the same, from time to time, under such rules, regulations, and restrictions as may be required by law: *Provided*, That if at any time hereafter a division of the public lands of the United States, or of the money arising from the sales of such lands, shall be made among the individual States, the part of such lands or money coming to this State shall be devoted to the purposes of education and internal improvement, and shall never be applied to any other purpose.

11. The above provisions shall not be construed to prevent the legislature from carrying into effect any laws that have been passed in favor of the colleges, universities, or academies, or from authorizing heirs or distributees to receive and enjoy escheated property, under such rules and regulations as from time to time may be prescribed by law.

The amendments of 1865 did not pertain to education.

OHIO.

Settled in 1788. Area, 39,964 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1802.

POPULATION.

1800.....	45,365	1840.....	1,519,467
1810.....	230,760	1850.....	1,960,329
1820.....	581,434	1860.....	2,339,511
1830.....	937,903		

## 102 CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISION RESPECTING EDUCATION.

The first constitution adopted in 1802, says in article eighth :

SECTION 3. \* \* \* Religion, morality, and knowledge being essentially necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of instruction shall forever be encouraged by legislative provision, not inconsistent with the right of conscience.

SECTION 25. That no law shall be passed to prevent the in the several counties and townships within this State from an equal participation in the schools, academies, and universities within this State, which are endowed in whole or in part from the revenue arising from donations made by the United States for the support of schools and colleges, and the doors of the said schools, academies, and universities shall be open for the reception of scholars, students, and teachers of every grade, without any distinction or preference whatever contrary to the intention for which said donations are made.

In the constitution of 1851, section seventh of the first article says :

\* \* Religion, morality, and knowledge, however, being essential to good government, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to pass suitable laws to protect every religious denomination in the peaceable enjoyment of its own mode of public worship, and to encourage schools and the means of instruction.

And article sixth also pertains to education.

### ARTICLE VI.—EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. The principal of all funds arising from the sale or other disposition of lands, or other property, granted or intrusted to this State for educational and religious purposes, shall forever be preserved inviolate and undiminished ; and the income arising therefrom shall be faithfully applied to the specific objects of the original grants or appropriations.

SEC. 2. The general assembly shall make such provisions, by taxation or otherwise, as, with the income arising from the school trust fund, will secure a thorough and efficient system of common schools throughout the State ; but no religious or other sect or sects shall ever have any exclusive right to, or control of, any part of the school funds of this State.

### LOUISIANA.

Settled in 1699. Area, 46,341 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1812.

### POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free Colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1800.....	34,311	7,585	34,660	76,556
1820.....	73,383	10,476	69,064	153,407
1830.....	89,441	16,710	109,588	215,739
1840.....	158,457	25,502	168,452	352,411
1850.....	255,491	17,462	244,809	517,762
1860.....	357,629	18,647	331,726	708,002

First constitution was formed in 1812, in which there is nothing relative to education.

The constitution of 1845, under the caption of title seven, has the following :

TITLE VII.—PUBLIC EDUCATION.

ARTICLE 133. There shall be appointed a superintendent of public education, who shall hold his office for two years. His duties shall be prescribed by law. He shall receive such compensation as the legislature may direct.

ART. 134. The legislature shall establish free public schools throughout the State, and shall provide means for their support by taxation on property, or otherwise.

ART. 135. The proceeds of all lands heretofore granted by the United States to this State for the use or support of schools, and of all lands which may hereafter be granted or bequeathed to the State, and not expressly granted or bequeathed for any other purpose, which hereafter may be disposed of by the State, and the proceeds of the estates of deceased persons to which the State may become entitled by law, shall be held by the State as a loan, and shall be and remain a perpetual fund, on which the State shall pay an annual interest of six per centum; which interest, together with all the rents of the unsold lands, shall be appropriated to the support of such schools; and this appropriation shall remain inviolable.

ART. 136. All moneys arising from the sales which have been, or may hereafter be, made of any lands heretofore granted by the United States to this State, for the use of a seminary of learning, and from any kind of donation that may hereafter be made for that purpose, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, at six per cent. per annum, shall be appropriated to the support of a seminary of learning for the promotion of literature and the arts and sciences, and no law shall ever be made diverting said fund to any other use than to the establishment and improvement of said seminary of learning.

ART. 137. An university shall be established in the city of New Orleans. It shall be composed of four faculties, to wit: One of law, one of medicine, one of the natural sciences, and one of letters.

ART. 138. It shall be called the "University of Louisiana," and the Medical College of Louisiana, as at present organized, shall constitute the faculty of medicine.

ART. 139. The legislature shall provide by law for its further organization and government, but shall be under no obligation to contribute to the establishment or support of said university by appropriations.

The constitution of 1852, in title eight, in these words provides:

TITLE VIII.—PUBLIC EDUCATION.

ARTICLE 135. There shall be elected a superintendent of public education, who shall hold his office for the term of two years. His duties shall be prescribed by law, and he shall receive such compensation as the legislature may direct: *Provided*, That the general assembly shall have power, by a vote of the majority of the members elected to both houses, to abolish the said office of superintendent of public education, whenever in their opinion said office shall be no longer necessary.

136. The general assembly shall establish free public schools throughout the State, and shall provide for their support by general taxation on property or otherwise; and all moneys so raised or provided shall be distributed to each parish, in proportion to the number of free white children between such ages as shall be fixed by the general assembly.

137. The proceeds of all lands heretofore granted by the United States to this State for the use or support of schools, and of all lands which may hereafter be granted or bequeathed to the State, and not expressly granted or bequeathed for any other purpose, which hereafter may be disposed of by the State, and the proceeds of the estates of deceased persons to which the State may become entitled by law, shall be held by the State as a loan, and shall be and remain a perpetual fund, on which the State shall pay an annual interest of six per cent.; which interest, together with the interest on the trust funds deposited with this State by the United States, under the act of Congress approved June 23, 1836, and all the rents of the unsold lands, shall be appropriated to the support of such schools; and this appropriation shall remain inviolable.

104 CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISION RESPECTING EDUCATION.

138. All moneys arising from the sales which have been, or may hereafter be, made of any lands heretofore granted by the United States to this State for the use of a seminary of learning, and from any kind of donation that may hereafter be made for that purpose, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, at six per cent. per annum, shall be appropriated to the support of a seminary of learning, for the promotion of literature and the arts and sciences; and no law shall ever be made diverting said fund to any other use than to the establishment and improvement of said seminary of learning.

139. The University of Louisiana, in New Orleans, as now established, shall be maintained.

140. The legislature shall have power to pass such laws as may be necessary for the further regulation of the university, and for the promotion of literature and science, but shall be under no obligation to contribute to the support of said university by appropriations.

The constitution of 1864 has the following :

TITLE XL.—PUBLIC EDUCATION.

ARTICLE 140. There shall be elected a superintendent of public education, who shall hold his office for the term of four years. His duties shall be prescribed by law, and he shall receive a salary of four thousand dollars per annum until otherwise provided by law: *Provided*, That the general assembly shall have power, by a vote of a majority of the members elected to both houses, to abolish the said office of superintendent of public education whenever, in their opinion, said office shall be no longer necessary.

ART. 141. The legislature shall provide for the education of all children of the State, between the ages of six and eighteen years, by maintenance of free public schools by taxation or otherwise.

ART. 142. The general exercises in the common schools shall be conducted in the English language.

ART. 143. A university shall be established in the city of New Orleans. It shall be composed of four faculties, to wit: One of law, one of medicine, one of the natural sciences, and one of letters. The legislature shall provide by law for its organization and maintenance.

ART. 144. The proceeds of all lands heretofore granted by the United States to this State for the use or purpose of the public schools, and of all lands which may hereafter be granted or bequeathed for that purpose, and the proceeds of the estates of deceased persons to which the State may become entitled by law, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, on which the State shall pay an interest of six per cent.; which interest, together with the interest of the trust fund, deposited with the State by the United States under the act of Congress approved June 23, 1836, and all the rents of unsold lands, shall be appropriated to the purpose of such schools; and this appropriation shall remain inviolable.

ART. 145. All moneys arising from the sales which have been, or may hereafter be, made of any lands heretofore granted by the United States to this State for the use of a specific seminary of learning, or from any kind of donation that may hereafter be made for that purpose, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, at six per cent. per annum, shall be appropriated to the promotion of literature and the arts and sciences, and no law shall ever be made diverting said fund to any other use than to the establishment and improvement of said seminary of learning, in such manner as it may deem proper.

ART. 146. No appropriation shall be made by the legislature for the support of any private school or institution of learning, but the highest encouragement shall be granted to public schools throughout the State.

INDIANA.

Settled in 1730. Area, 33,809 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1816.



POPULATION.

1800.....	4, 875	1840.....	685, 866
1810.....	45, 365	1850.....	988, 416
1820.....	147, 178	1860.....	1, 350, 428
1830.....	343, 031		

The first constitution was adopted in 1816; article ninth of which pertained to

EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. Knowledge and learning generally diffused through a community being essential to the preservation of a free government, and spreading the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the country being highly conducive to this end, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to provide by law for the improvement of such lands as are, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to this State for the use of schools, and to apply any funds which may be raised from such lands, or from any other quarter, to the accomplishment of the grand object for which they are, or may be, intended. But no lands granted for the use of schools or seminaries of learning shall be sold by authority of this State prior to the year eighteen hundred and twenty; and the moneys which may be raised out of the sale of any such lands, or otherwise obtained for the purposes aforesaid, shall be, and remain a fund, for the exclusive purpose of promoting the interest of literature and the sciences, and for the support of seminaries and public schools. The general assembly shall from time to time pass such laws as shall be calculated to encourage intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvements, by allowing rewards and immunities for the promotion and improvement of arts, sciences, commerce, manufactures, and natural history, and to countenance and encourage the principles of humanity, industry, and morality.

SECTION 2. It shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to provide by law for a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis, and equally open to all.

SECTION 3. And for the promotion of such salutary end the money which shall be paid as an equivalent by persons exempt from militia duty, except in times of war, shall be exclusively and in equal proportion applied to the support of county seminaries. Also, all fines assessed for any breach of the penal laws shall be applied to said seminaries in the counties wherein they shall be assessed.

SECTION 4. It shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as circumstances will permit, to form a penal code, founded on the principles of reformation and not vindictive justice; and also to provide one or more farms, to be an asylum for those persons who by reason of age, infirmity, or other misfortunes, may have a claim upon the aid and beneficence of society, on such principles that such persons may therein find employment and every reasonable comfort, and lose, by their usefulness, the degrading sense of dependence.

SECTION 5. The general assembly, at the time they lay off a new county, shall cause at least ten per cent. to be reserved out of the sales of town lots in the seat of justice of such county, for the use of a public library for such county, and at the same session they shall incorporate a library company, under such rules and regulations as will best secure its permanence, and extend its benefits.

The second constitution was adopted in 1851, and has a full article on education:

ARTICLE VIII.—EDUCATION.

SEC. 1. Knowledge and learning generally diffused throughout a community being essential to the preservation of a free government, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to encourage, by all suitable means, moral, intellectual, scien-

tific, and agricultural improvement, and to provide by law for a general and uniform system of common schools, wherein tuition shall be without charge, and equally open to all.

2. The common school fund shall consist of the congressional township fund and the lands belonging thereto;

The surplus revenue fund;

The saline fund, and the lands belonging thereto;

The bank tax fund, and the fund arising from the one hundred and fourteenth section of the charter of the State Bank of Indiana;

The fund to be derived from the sale of county seminaries, and the moneys and property heretofore held for such seminaries; from the fines assessed for breaches of the penal laws of the State; and from all forfeitures which may accrue;

All lands and other estate which shall escheat to the State for want of heirs or kindred entitled to the inheritance;

All lands that have been, or may hereafter be, granted to the State, where no special purpose is expressed in the grant, and the proceeds of the sales thereof, including the proceeds of the sales of the swamp lands granted to the State of Indiana by the act of Congress of 28th September, 1850, after deducting the expense of selecting and draining the same;

Taxes on the property of corporations that may be assessed for common school purposes.

3. The principal of the common school fund shall remain a perpetual fund, which may be increased, but shall never be diminished; and the income thereof shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools, and to no other purpose whatever.

4. The general assembly shall invest, in some safe and profitable manner, all such portions of the common school fund as have not heretofore been intrusted to the several counties; and shall make provision by law for the distribution among the several counties of the interest thereof.

5. If any county shall fail to demand its proportion of such interest for common school purposes, the same shall be reinvested for the benefit of such county.

6. The several counties shall be held liable for the preservation of so much of the said fund as may be intrusted to them, and for the payment of the annual interest thereon.

7. All trust funds held by the State shall remain inviolate, and be faithfully and exclusively applied to the purposes for which the trust was created.

8. The general assembly shall provide for the election, by the voters of the State, of a state superintendent of public instruction, who shall hold his office for two years, and whose duties and compensation shall be prescribed by law.

#### MISSISSIPPI.

Settled in 1716. Area, 47,156 square miles. Admitted as a State in 1817.

#### POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1800 .....	5, 179	182	3, 489	8, 850
1810 .....	23, 024	240	17, 088	40, 352
1820 .....	42, 176	458	32, 814	75, 448
1830 .....	20, 443	519	65, 659	136, 621
1840 .....	179, 074	1, 366	195, 211	375, 651
1850 .....	295, 718	930	309, 878	606, 526
1860 .....	353, 901	773	436, 631	791, 305

Adopted a constitution in 1817, amended in 1832 and in 1865. Section fourteenth, article seventh, is in this language :

14. Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government, the preservation of liberty, and the happiness of mankind, schools, and the means of education, shall forever be encouraged in this State.

#### ILLINOIS.

Settled in 1720. Area, 55,409 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1818.

#### POPULATION.

1810.....	12,284	1840.....	476,183
1820.....	55,210	1850.....	851,470
1830.....	157,445	1860.....	1,711,951

The first constitution was adopted in 1818, and the second in 1847, neither of which contains any provision relative to education.

#### ALABAMA.

Originally a part of Georgia. Area, 46,000 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1819.

#### POPULATION.

Census.	Whites.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1820.....	85,451	571	41,879	127,901
1830.....	190,406	1,572	117,549	309,527
1840.....	335,185	2,039	253,536	590,753
1850.....	426,514	2,265	343,844	771,623
1860.....	526,431	2,690	435,089	964,201

The constitution of 1819, which was in force in 1860, makes the following provision relative to

#### EDUCATION.

Schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged in this State; and the general assembly shall take measures to preserve from unnecessary waste or damage such lands as are, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States for the use of schools within each township in this State, and apply the funds which may be raised from such lands in strict conformity to the object of such grant. The general assembly shall take like measures for the improvement of such lands as have been, or may be hereafter, granted by the United States to this State for the support of a seminary of learning; and the moneys which may be raised from such lands, by rent, lease, or sale, or from any other quarter, for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a fund for the exclusive support of a State university, for the promotion of the arts, literature, and the sciences; and it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as early as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds and endowments of such institution.

The Constitution of 1865 retains this provision.

# 108 CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISION RESPECTING EDUCATION.

The constitution of 1865 includes the above provision, making it imperative on the Legislature "to enact necessary and proper laws for the encouragement of schools and the means of education."

## MISSOURI.

Settled in 1763. Area 67,380 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1820.

### POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1810.....	17,227	607	3,011	20,845
1820.....	55,988	376	10,222	66,586
1830.....	114,795	569	25,091	140,455
1840.....	323,888	1,574	58,240	383,702
1850.....	592,004	2,618	87,422	682,044
1860.....	1,063,569	3,572	114,931	1,182,012

The constitution adopted in 1820 devotes article sixth to education:

### ARTICLE VI.—OF EDUCATION.

SECTION. 1. Schools, and the means of education, shall forever be encouraged in this State; and the general assembly shall take measures to preserve from waste or damage such lands as have been, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States for the use of schools within each township in this State, and shall apply the funds which may arise from such lands in strict conformity to the object of the grant. One school, or more, shall be established in each township, as soon as practicable and necessary, where the poor shall be taught gratis.

SEC. 2. The general assembly shall take measures for the improvement of such lands as have been, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to this State for the support of a seminary of learning; and the funds accruing from such lands by rent or lease, or in any other manner, or which may be obtained from any other source, for the purposes aforesaid, shall be and remain a permanent fund to support a university for the promotion of literature and of the arts and sciences; and it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement of such lands, and for the improvement and permanent security of the funds and endowments of such institution.

The constitution of 1865 has the following:

### ARTICLE IX.—EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. A general diffusion of knowledge and intelligence being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, the General Assembly shall establish and maintain free schools for the gratuitous instruction of all persons in this State between the ages of five and twenty-one years.

2. Separate schools may be established for children of African descent. All funds provided for the support of public schools shall be appropriated in proportion to the number of children, without regard to color.

3. The supervision of public instruction shall be vested in a Board of Education, whose powers and duties shall be prescribed by law. A Superintendent of Public Schools, who shall be the president of the board, shall be elected by the qualified voters of the State. He shall possess the qualifications of a State Sena-

tor, and hold his office for the term of four years, and shall perform such duties and receive such compensation as may be prescribed by law. The Secretary of State and Attorney General shall be *ex officio* members, and with the Superintendent compose said Board of Education.

4. The General Assembly shall also establish and maintain a State University, with departments for instruction in teaching, in agriculture, and in natural science, as soon as the public school fund will permit.

5. The proceeds of all lands that have been or hereafter may be granted by the United States to this State, and not otherwise appropriated by this State or the United States; also all moneys, stocks, bonds, lands, and other property now belonging to any fund for purposes of education; also the net proceeds of all sales of lands and other property and effects that may accrue to the State by escheat, or from sales of estrays, or from unclaimed dividends, or distributive shares of the estates of deceased persons, or from fines, penalties, and forfeitures; also any proceeds of the sales of public lands which may have been or hereafter may be paid over to this State (if Congress will consent to said appropriation;) also all other grants, gifts, or devises that have been or hereafter may be made to this State, and not otherwise appropriated by the terms of the grant, gift, or devise, shall be securely invested and sacredly preserved as a public school fund, the annual income of which fund, together with so much of the ordinary revenue of the State as may be necessary, shall be faithfully appropriated for establishing and maintaining the free schools and the university in the article provided for, and for no other uses or purposes whatever.

6. No part of the public school fund shall ever be invested in the stock or bonds or other obligations of any State, or of any county, city, town, or corporation. The stock of the Bank of the State of Missouri, now held for school purposes, and all other stocks belonging to any school or university fund, shall be sold in such manner and at such time as the General Assembly shall prescribe; and the proceeds thereof, and the proceeds of the sales of any lands or other property which now belong or may hereafter belong to said school fund, may be invested in the bonds of the United States. All county school funds shall be loaned upon good and unincumbered real estate security, with personal security in addition thereto.

7. No township or school district shall receive any portion of the public school fund, unless a free school shall have been kept therein for not less than three months during the year for which distribution thereof is made. The General Assembly shall have power to require by law that every child of sufficient mental and physical ability shall attend the public schools during the period between the ages of five and eighteen years for a term equivalent to sixteen months, unless educated by other means.

8. In case the public school fund shall be insufficient to sustain a free school at least four months in every year, in each school district in this State, the General Assembly may provide by law for the raising of such deficiency by levying a tax on all the taxable property in each county, township, or school district as they may deem proper.

9. The General Assembly shall, so far as it can be done without infringing upon vested rights, reduce all lands, moneys, and other property used or held for school purposes, in the various counties of this State, into the public school fund herein provided for; and, in making distribution of the annual income of such fund, shall take into consideration the amount of any county or city funds appropriated for common school purposes, and make such distribution as will equalize the amount appropriated for common schools throughout the State.

## ARTICLE II.

SECTION 19. After the first day of January, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-six, every person who was not a qualified voter prior to that time, shall, in addition to the other qualifications required, be able to read and write in order to become a qualified voter, unless his inability to read or write shall be the result of a physical disability.

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## ARKANSAS.

Formed from the Louisiana purchase. Area 52,198 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1836.

### POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1820.....	12,579	77	1,617	14,273
1830.....	25,671	141	4,576	30,388
1840.....	77,174	465	19,935	97,574
1850.....	162,189	608	47,100	209,897
1860.....	324,191	144	111,115	435,450

The constitution of 1836 makes provision for education in article nine.

### ARTICLE IX.—EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. Knowledge and learning generally diffused through a community being essential to the preservation of a free government, and diffusing the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the State being highly conducive to this end, it shall be the duty of the general assembly to provide by law for the improvement of such lands as are or hereafter may be granted by the United States to this State for the use of schools, and to apply any funds which may be raised from such land, or from any other source, to the accomplishment of the object for which they are or may be intended. The general assembly shall, from time to time, pass such laws as shall be calculated to encourage intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvements, by allowing rewards and immunities for the promotion and improvement of arts, science, commerce, manufactures, and natural history, and countenance and encourage the principles of humanity, industry, and morality.

In the amended constitution of 1865 this article remains, and is numbered eight.

## MICHIGAN.

First settled in 1650. Area 56,243 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1837.

### POPULATION.

1810.....	4,762	1840.....	212,267
1820.....	8,896	1850.....	397,654
1830.....	31,639	1860.....	749,113

The first constitution made the following provision :

### ARTICLE X.—EDUCATION.

The governor shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the legislature in joint vote, shall appoint a superintendent of public instruction, who shall hold his office for two years, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law.



The legislature shall encourage by all suitable means the promotion of intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement. The proceeds of all lands that have been, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to this State for the support of schools, which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, together with the rents of all such unsold lands, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of schools throughout the State.

The legislature shall provide for a system of common schools, by which a school shall be kept up and supported in each school district at least three months in every year; and every school district neglecting to keep up and support such a school may be deprived of its equal proportion of the interest of the public fund.

As soon as the circumstances of the State will permit, the legislature shall provide for the establishment of libraries, one at least in each township; and the money which shall be paid by persons as an equivalent for exemption from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines assessed in the several counties for any breach of the penal laws, shall be exclusively applied for the support of said libraries.

The legislature shall take measures for the protection, improvement, or other disposition of such lands as have been, or may hereafter be, reserved or granted by the United States to this State for the support of a university; and the funds accruing from the rents or sale of such lands, or from any other source, for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a permanent fund for the support of said university, with such branches as the public convenience may hereafter demand, for the promotion of literature, the arts and sciences, and as may be authorized by the terms of such grant; and it shall be the duty of the legislature, as soon as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds of said university.

The second constitution, adopted in 1850, devotes to education—

#### ARTICLE XIII.

SECTION 1. The superintendent of public instruction shall have the general supervision of public instruction, and his duties shall be prescribed by law.

2. The proceeds from the sales of all lands that have been, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to the State for educational purposes, or appropriated by the State for like purposes, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest and income of which, together with the rents of all such lands as may remain unsold, shall be inviolably appropriated and annually applied to the specific objects of the original gift, grant, or appropriation.

3. All lands, the titles to which shall fail from a defect of heirs, shall escheat to the State; and the interest on the clear proceeds from the sales thereof shall be appropriated exclusively to the support of primary schools.

4. The legislature shall, within five years from the adoption of this constitution, provide for and establish a system of primary schools, whereby a school shall be kept, without charge for tuition, at least three months in each year, in every school district in the State, and all instruction in said schools shall be conducted in the English language.

5. A school shall be maintained in each school district at least three months in each year. Any school district neglecting to maintain such school, shall be deprived for the ensuing year of its proportion of the income of the primary school fund, and of all funds arising from taxes for the support of schools.

6. There shall be elected in each judicial circuit, at the time of the election of the judge of such circuit, a regent of the university, whose term of office shall be the same as that of such judge. The regents thus elected shall constitute the board of regents of the University of Michigan.

7. The regents of the university, and their successors in office, shall continue to constitute the body corporate, known by the name and title of "the Regents of the University of Michigan."

8. The regents of the university shall, at their first annual meeting, or as soon thereafter as may be, elect a president of the university, who shall be *ex officio* a

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member of their board, with the privilege of speaking, but not of voting. He shall preside at the meetings of the regents, and be the principal executive officer of the university. The board of regents shall have the general supervision of the university, and the direction and control of all expenditures from the university interest fund.

9. There shall be elected at the general election in the year one thousand eight hundred and fifty-two, three members of a State board of education, one for two years, one for four years, and one for six years; and at each succeeding biennial election there shall be elected one member of such board, who shall hold his office for six years. The superintendent of public instruction shall be *ex officio* a member and secretary of such board. The board shall have the general supervision of the State Normal School, and their duties shall be prescribed by law.

10. Institutions for the benefit of those inhabitants who are deaf, dumb, blind or insane, shall always be fostered and supported.

11. The legislature shall encourage the promotion of intellectual, scientific and agricultural improvement; and shall, as soon as practicable, provide for the establishment of an agricultural school. The legislature may appropriate the twenty-two sections of salt spring lands now unappropriated, or the money arising from the sale of the same, where such lands have been already sold, and any land which may hereafter be granted or appropriated for such purpose, for the support and maintenance of such school, and may make the same a branch of the university for instruction in agriculture and the natural sciences connected therewith, and place the same under the supervision of the regents of the university.

12. The legislature shall also provide for the establishment of at least one librarian in each township; and all fines assessed and collected in the several counties and townships for any breach of the penal laws shall be exclusively applied to the support of such libraries.

### FLORIDA.

Explored in 1512. Area, 59,268 square miles. Admitted as a State in March, 1845.

#### POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1830.....	18,835	844	15,501	34,730
1840.....	27,943	817	25,717	54,477
1850.....	47,203	932	39,300	87,445
1860.....	77,748	293	61,745	140,425

In the constitution presented to Congress in 1839, which was in force in 1860, article tenth pertains to education.

#### ARTICLE X.—EDUCATION

The proceeds of all lands granted by the United States for the use of schools shall remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which shall be used for the benefit of said schools, and for no other purpose.

In the constitution of 1865 is the following:

#### ARTICLE X.—EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. The proceeds of all lands for the use of schools and a seminary or seminaries of learning shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which,

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together with all moneys accrued from any other source, applicable to the same object, shall be irrevocably appropriated to the use of schools and seminaries of learning, respectively, and to no other purpose.

2. The General Assembly shall take such measures as may be necessary to preserve from waste or damage all lands so granted or appropriated for the purpose of education.

## TEXAS.

Settled in 1792. Area, 237,321 square miles. Admitted as a State in December, 1845.

## POPULATION.

Census.	White.	Free colored.	Slaves.	Total.
1850.....	154,431	397	58,161	212,592
1860.....	421,294	355	182,566	604,215

Article tenth of the constitution of 1845 has the following in relation to education :

## ARTICLE X.—EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. A general diffusion of knowledge being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, it shall be the duty of the legislature of the State to make suitable provisions for the support and maintenance of public schools.

SEC. 2. The legislature shall, as early as practicable, establish a system of free schools throughout the State; and as a basis for the endowment and support of said system, all the funds, lands, and other property heretofore set apart and appropriated, or that may hereafter be set apart and appropriated for the support and maintenance of public schools, shall constitute the public school fund; and said fund, and the income derived therefrom, shall be a perpetual fund exclusively for the education of all the white scholastic inhabitants of this State, and no law shall ever be made appropriating said fund to any other use or purpose whatever. And until such time as the legislature shall provide for the establishment of such system of public schools in the State, the fund thus created and the income derived therefrom, shall remain as a charge against the State, and be passed to the credit of the free common school fund.

SEC. 3. And all the alternate sections of land reserved by the State out of grants heretofore made, or that may hereafter be made, to railroad companies or other corporations of any nature whatever, for internal improvements, or for the development of the wealth and resources of the State, shall be set apart as a part of the perpetual school fund of the State; provided, that if at any time hereafter any portion of the public domain of this State shall be sold, and by virtue of said sale the jurisdiction over said land shall be vested in the United States government, in such event one-half of the proceeds derived from said sale shall become a part of the perpetual school fund of the State; and the legislature shall hereafter appropriate one-half of the proceeds resulting from all sales of the public lands to the perpetual public school fund.

SEC. 4. The legislature shall provide, from time to time, for the sale of lands belonging to the perpetual public school fund, upon such time and terms as it may deem expedient; provided, that in cases of sale the preference shall be given to actual settlers; and, provided further, that the legislature shall have no power to grant relief to purchasers by granting further time for payment, but shall, in all cases, provide for the forfeiture of the land to the State for the benefit of a

perpetual public school fund; and that all interest accruing upon such sales shall be a part of the income belonging to the school fund, and subject to appropriation annually for educational purposes.

SEC. 5. The legislature shall have no power to appropriate or loan or invest, except as follows, any part of the principal sum of the perpetual school fund for any purpose whatever; and it shall be the duty of the legislature to appropriate annually the income which may be derived from said fund, for educational purposes, under such system as it may adopt; and it shall, from time to time, cause the principal sum now on hand and arising from sales of land, or from any other source, to be invested in the bonds of the United States of America, or the bonds of the State of Texas, or such bonds as the State may guarantee.

SEC. 6. All public lands which have been heretofore, or may be hereafter, granted for public schools to the various counties or other political divisions in this State, shall be under the control of the legislature, and may be sold on such terms and under such regulations as the legislature shall by law prescribe; and the proceeds of the sale of said lands shall be added to the perpetual school fund of the State. But each county shall receive the full benefit of the interest arising from the proceeds of the sale of the lands granted to them respectively; provided that the lands already patented to the counties shall not be sold without the consent of such county or counties to which the lands may belong.

SEC. 7. The legislature may provide for the levying of a tax for educational purposes; provided, the taxes levied shall be distributed from year to year, as the same may be collected; and, provided, that all the sums arising from said tax which may be collected from Africans, or persons of African descent, shall be exclusively appropriated for the maintenance of a system of public schools for Africans and their children; and it shall be the duty of the legislature to encourage schools among these people.

SEC. 8. The moneys and lands heretofore granted to, or which may hereafter be granted for the endowment and support of one or more universities, shall constitute a special fund for the maintenance of said universities; and until the university or universities are located and commenced, the principal, and the interest arising from the investment of the principal, shall be invested in like manner, and under the same restrictions as provided for the investment and control of the perpetual public school fund, in sections four and five (4 and 5) in this article of the Constitution, and the legislature shall have no power to appropriate the university fund for any other purpose than that of the maintenance of said universities, and the legislature shall, at an early day, make such provisions, by law, as will organize and put into operation the university.

SEC. 9. The four hundred thousand acres of land that have been surveyed and set apart, under the provisions of a law approved 30th August, A. D. 1856, for the benefit of a lunatic asylum, a deaf and dumb asylum, a blind asylum, and an orphan asylum, shall constitute a fund for the support of such institutions, one-fourth part for each; and the said fund shall never be diverted to any other purpose. The said lands may be sold, and the fund invested under the same rules and regulations as provided for the lands belonging to the school fund. The income of said fund only shall be applied to the support of such institutions; and, until so applied, shall be invested in the same manner as the principal.

SEC. 10. The governor, by and with the advice and consent of two-thirds of the senate, shall appoint an officer, to be styled the superintendent of public instruction. His term of office shall be four years, and his annual salary shall not be less than (\$2,000) two thousand dollars, payable at stated times; and the governor, comptroller, and superintendent of public education shall constitute a board to be styled a board of education, and shall have the general management and control of the perpetual school fund, and common schools, under such regulations as the legislature may hereafter prescribe.

SEC. 11. The several counties in this State which have not received their quantum of the lands for the purposes of education, shall be entitled to the same quantity heretofore appropriated by the Congress of the Republic of Texas, and the State, to other counties. And the counties which have not had the lands to which they are entitled for educational purposes located shall have the right to contract for the location, surveying, and procuring the patents for said lands, and of paying for the same with any portion of said lands so patented, not to exceed one-fourth

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of the whole amount to be so located, surveyed, and patented—to be divided according to quality, allowing to each part a fair proportion of land, water, and timber.

## IOWA.

Organized as a Territory in 1838. Area, 55,405 square miles.  
Admitted into the Union in 1846.

## POPULATION.

1850..... 192,214 || 1860..... 674,913

The constitution of 1846 devotes article tenth to education and school lands.

## ARTICLE X.—EDUCATION AND SCHOOL LANDS.

SEC. 1. The general assembly shall provide for the election, by the people, of a superintendent of public instruction, who shall hold his office for three years, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law, and who shall receive such compensation as the general assembly may direct.

2. The general assembly shall encourage, by all suitable means, the promotion of intellectual, scientific, moral and agricultural improvement. The proceeds of all lands that have been or hereafter may be granted by the United States to this State for the support of schools, which shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, and the five hundred thousand acres of land granted to the new States under an act of Congress distributing the proceeds of the public lands among the several States of the Union, approved A. D. 1841, and all estates of deceased persons who may have died without leaving a will or heir, and also such per cent. as may be granted by Congress on the sale of lands in this State, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, together with all the rents of the unsold lands, and such other means as the general assembly may provide, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools throughout the State.

3. The general assembly shall provide for a system of common schools, by which a school shall be kept up and supported in each school district, at least three months in every year; and any school district neglecting to keep up and support such a school may be deprived of its proportion of the interest of the public fund during such neglect.

4. The money which shall be paid by persons as an equivalent for exemption from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines collected in the several counties for any breach of the penal laws, shall be exclusively applied, in the several counties in which such money is paid or fine collected, among the several school districts of said counties, in the proportion to the number of inhabitants in such districts, to the support of common schools or the establishment of libraries, as the general assembly shall, from time to time, provide by law.

5. The general assembly shall take measures for the protection, improvement, or other disposition of such lands as have been or may hereafter be reserved or granted by the United States, or any person or persons, to this State, for the use of a university; and the funds accruing from the rents or sale of such lands, or from any other source, for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a permanent fund, the interest of which shall be applied to the support of said university, with such branches as the public convenience may hereafter demand, for the promotion of literature, the arts and sciences, as may be authorized by the terms of such grant. And it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds of said university.

The constitution of 1857 says:

ARTICLE IX.—FIRST.—EDUCATION.

SEC. 1. The educational interest of the State, including common schools and other educational institutions, shall be under the management of a board of education, which shall consist of the lieutenant governor, who shall be the presiding officer of the board, and have the casting vote in case of a tie, and one member to be elected from each judicial district in the State.

2. No person shall be eligible as a member of said board who shall not have attained the age of twenty-five years, and shall have been one year a citizen of the State.

3. One member of said board shall be chosen by the qualified electors of each district, and shall hold the office for the term of four years, and until his successor is elected and qualified. After the first election under this constitution, the board shall be divided, as nearly as practicable, into two equal classes, and the seats of the first class shall be vacated after the expiration of two years; and one-half of the board shall be chosen every two years thereafter.

4. The first session of the board of education shall be held at the seat of government on the first Monday of December after their election; after which the general assembly may fix the time and place of meeting.

5. The session of the board shall be limited to twenty days, and but one session shall be held in any one year, except upon extraordinary occasions, when, upon the recommendation of two-thirds of the board, the governor may order a special session.

6. The board of education shall appoint a secretary, who shall be the executive officer of the board, and perform such duties as may be imposed upon him by the board and the laws of the State. They shall keep a journal of their proceedings, which shall be published and distributed in the same manner as the journals of the general assembly.

7. All rules and regulations made by the board shall be published and distributed to the several counties, townships, and school districts, as may be provided for by the board, and when so made, published, and distributed, they shall have the force and effect of law.

8. The board of education shall have full power and authority to legislate and make all needful rules and regulations in relation to common schools and other educational institutions that are instituted; to receive aid from the school or university fund of this State; but all acts, rules, and regulations of said board may be altered, amended, or repealed by the general assembly; and when so altered, amended, or repealed, they shall not be re-enacted by the board of education.

9. The governor of the State shall be, *ex officio*, a member of said board.

10. The board shall have no power to levy taxes or make appropriations of money. Their contingent expenses shall be provided for by the general assembly.

11. The State university shall be established at one place; without branches at any other place, and the university fund shall be applied to that institution and no other.

12. The board of education shall provide for the education of all the youths of the State, through a system of common schools, and such schools shall be organized and kept in each school district at least three months in each year. Any district failing, for two consecutive years, to organize and keep up a school, as aforesaid, may be deprived of its portion of the school fund.

13. The members of the board of education shall each receive the same per diem during the time of their session, and mileage going to and returning therefrom, as members of the general assembly.

14. A majority of the board shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business; but no rule, regulation, or law for the government of common schools, or other educational institutions, shall pass without the concurrence of a majority of all the members of the board, which shall be expressed by the yeas and nays on the final passage. The style of all acts of the board shall be, "Be it enacted by the board of education of the State of Iowa."

15. At any time after the year one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, the general assembly shall have power to abolish or reorganize said board of educa-



tion, and provide for the educational interest of the State in any other manner that to them shall seem best and proper.

SECOND.—SCHOOL FUNDS AND SCHOOL LANDS.

SEC. 1. The educational and school funds and lands shall be under the control and management of the general assembly of this State.

2. The university lands, and the proceeds thereof, and all moneys belonging to said fund, shall be a permanent fund for the sole use of the State university. The interest arising from the same shall be annually appropriated for the support and benefit of said university.

3. The general assembly shall encourage, by all suitable means, the promotion of intellectual, scientific, moral, and agricultural improvement. The proceeds of all lands that have been, or hereafter may be, granted by the United States to this State for the support of schools, which may have been or shall hereafter be sold or disposed of, and the five hundred thousand acres of land granted to the new States, under an act of Congress distributing the proceeds of the public lands among the several States of the Union, approved in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and forty-one, and all estates of deceased persons who may have died without leaving a will or heir, and also such per cent. as has been or may hereafter be granted by Congress on the sale of lands in this State, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, together with all rents of the unsold lands, and such other means as the general assembly may provide, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools throughout the State.

4. The money which may have been or shall be paid by persons as an equivalent for exemption from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines collected in the several counties for any breach of the penal laws, shall be exclusively applied, in the several counties in which such money is paid, or fine collected, among the several school districts of said counties, in proportion to the number of youths subject to enumeration in such districts, to the support of common schools, or the establishment of libraries, as the board of education shall from time to time provide.

5. The general assembly shall take measures for the protection, improvement, or other disposition of such lands as have been, or may hereafter be, reserved or granted by the United States, or any person or persons, to this State, for the use of the university, and the funds accruing from the rents or sales of such lands, or from any other source for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a permanent fund, the interest of which shall be applied to the support of said university for the promotion of literature and the arts and sciences, as may be authorized by the terms of such grant. And it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as soon as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds of said university.

6. The financial agents of the school funds shall be the same that, by law, receive and control the State and county revenue for other civil purposes, under such regulations as may be provided by law.

7. The money subject to the support and maintenance of common schools shall be distributed to the districts in proportion to the number of youths between the ages of five and twenty-one years, in such manner as may be provided by the general assembly.

WISCONSIN.

Occupied by fur traders in 1670. Organized as a Territory in 1836.  
Area, 53,924 square miles. Admitted as a State in 1848.

POPULATION.

1840..... 30,945 || 1850 ..... 305,391 || 1861..... 775,881

Article tenth of its constitution pertains to education.

## ARTICLE X.—EDUCATION.

SEC. 1. The supervision of public instruction shall be vested in a state superintendent and such other officers as the legislature shall direct. The state superintendent shall be chosen by the qualified electors of the State, in such manner as the legislature shall provide; his powers, duties, and compensation shall be prescribed by law: *Provided*, That his compensation shall not exceed the sum of twelve hundred dollars annually.

2. The proceeds of all lands that have been or hereafter may be granted by the United States to this State for educational purposes, (except the lands heretofore granted for the purposes of a university,) and all moneys and the clear proceeds of all property that may accrue to the State by forfeiture or escheat, and all moneys which may be paid as an equivalent for exemption from military duty, and the clear proceeds of all fines collected in the several counties for any breach of the penal laws, and all moneys arising from any grant to the State, where the purposes of such grant are not specified, and the five hundred thousand acres of land to which the State is entitled by the provisions of an act of Congress entitled "An act to appropriate the proceeds of the sales of the public lands, and to grant pre-emption rights," approved the fourth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and forty-one, and also the five *per centum* of the net proceeds of the public lands to which the State shall become entitled on her admission into the Union, (if Congress shall consent to such appropriation of the two grants last mentioned,) shall be set apart as a separate fund, to be called the school fund, the interest of which, and all other revenues derived from the school lands, shall be exclusively applied to the following objects, to wit:

1. To the support and maintenance of common schools in each school district, and the purchase of suitable libraries and apparatus therefor.

2. The residue shall be appropriated to the support and maintenance of academies and normal schools, and suitable libraries and apparatus therefor.

3. The legislature shall provide by law for the establishment of district schools, which shall be as nearly uniform as practicable; and such schools shall be free and without charge for tuition to all children between the ages of four and twenty years; and no sectarian instruction shall be allowed therein.

4. Each town and city shall be required to raise by tax, annually, for the support of common schools therein, a sum not less than one-half the amount received by such town or city respectively for school purposes from the income of the school fund.

5. Provision shall be made by law for the distribution of the income of the school fund among the several towns and cities of the State, for the support of common schools therein, in some just proportion to the number of children and youth resident therein, between the ages of four and twenty years; and no appropriation shall be made from the school fund to any city or town, for the year in which said city or town shall fail to raise such tax, nor to any school district for the year in which a school shall not be maintained at least three months.

6. Provision shall be made by law for the establishment of a State university, at or near the seat of the State government, and for connecting with the same from time to time such colleges in different parts of the State as the interests of education may require. The proceeds of all lands that have been or may hereafter be granted by the United States to the State for the support of a university, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, to be called the "university fund," the interest of which shall be appropriated to the support of the State university; and no sectarian instruction shall be allowed in such university.

7. The secretary of state, treasurer, and attorney general shall constitute a board of commissioners for the sale of the school and university lands, and for the investment of the funds arising therefrom. Any two of said commissioners shall be a quorum for the transaction of all business pertaining to the duties of their office.

8. Provision shall be made by law for the sale of all school and university lands, after they shall have been appraised; and when any portion of such lands shall be sold, and the purchase money shall not be paid at the time of the sale, the commissioners shall take security by mortgage upon the land sold, for the sum remaining unpaid, with seven per cent. interest thereon, payable annually at the office of the treasurer. The commissioners shall be authorized to execute good

and sufficient conveyance to all purchasers of such lands, and to discharge any mortgages taken as security, when the sum due thereon shall have been paid. The commissioners shall have power to withhold from sale any portion of such lands when they shall deem it expedient; and shall invest all moneys arising from the sale of such lands, as well as all other university and school funds, in such manner as the legislature shall provide, and shall give such security for the faithful performance of their duties as may be required by law.

# CALIFORNIA.

Settled in 1769 by the Spanish. Area, 155,500 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1850.

## POPULATION.

1850..... 92,597 || 1860..... 397,994

Its constitution of 1849 has the following:

## ARTICLE IX.—EDUCATION.

SEC. 1. The legislature shall provide for the election by the people of a superintendent of public instruction, who shall hold his office for three years, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law, and who shall receive such compensation as the legislature may direct.

2. The legislature shall encourage, by all suitable means, the promotion of intellectual, scientific, moral, and agricultural improvement. The proceeds of all land that may be granted by the United States to this State for the support of schools, which may be sold or disposed of, and the five hundred thousand acres of land granted to the new States, under an act of Congress distributing the proceeds of the public lands among the several States of the Union, approved A. D. 1841; and all estates of deceased persons who may have died without leaving a will or heir, and also such per cent. as may be granted by Congress on the sale of lands in this State, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, together with all the rents of the unsold lands, and such other means as the legislature may provide, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools throughout the State.

3. The legislature shall provide for a system of common schools, by which a school shall be kept up and supported in each district at least three months in every year; and any school district neglecting to keep up and support such a school may be deprived of its proportion of the interest of the public fund during such neglect.

4. The legislature shall take measures for the protection, improvement, or other disposition of such lands as have been or may hereafter be reserved or granted by the United States, or any person or persons, to the State for the use of a university; and the funds accruing from the rents or sale of such lands, or from any other source for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a permanent fund, the interest of which shall be applied to the support of said university, with such branches as the public convenience may demand, for the promotion of literature and the arts and sciences, as may be authorized by the terms of such grant. And it shall be the duty of the legislature, as soon as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds of said university.

# MINNESOTA.

Explored by French traders in 1659. Organized as a Territory in 1849. Area, 81,259 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1858.

## POPULATION.

1850..... 6,077 || 1860..... 172,413

Article eighth of the constitution relates to school funds, education, and science.

## ARTICLE VIII.—SCHOOL FUNDS, EDUCATION, AND SCIENCE.

SEC. 1. The stability of a republican form of government depending mainly upon the intelligence of the people, it shall be the duty of the legislature to establish a general and uniform system of public schools.

2. The proceeds of such lands as are or hereafter may be granted by the United States for the use of schools within each township in this State shall remain a perpetual school fund to the State, and not more than one-third of said lands may be sold in two years, one-third in five years, and one-third in ten years; but the lands of the greatest valuation shall be sold first: *Provided*, That no portion of said lands shall be sold otherwise than at public sale. The principal of all funds arising from sales or other disposition of lands, or other property, granted or intrusted to this State, in each township, for educational purposes, shall forever be preserved inviolate and undiminished; and the income arising from the lease or sale of said school lands shall be distributed to the different townships throughout the State, in proportion to the number of scholars in each township between the ages of five and twenty-one years, and shall be faithfully applied to the specific objects of the original grants or appropriations.

3. The legislature shall make such provisions, by taxation or otherwise, as, with the income arising from the school fund, will secure a thorough and efficient system of public schools in each township in the State.

4. The location of the University of Minnesota, as established by existing laws, is hereby confirmed, and said institution is hereby declared to be the University of the State of Minnesota. All the rights, immunities, franchises, and endowments heretofore granted or conferred, are hereby perpetuated unto the said university, and all lands which may be granted hereafter by Congress, or other donations for said university purposes, shall vest in the institution referred to in this section.

## OREGON.

Explored by the Spanish in 1775. Organized as a Territory in 1848. Area, 95,274 square miles. Admitted into the Union in 1859.

## POPULATION.

1850..... 12,093 || 1860..... 52,405

The constitution of 1857, still in force, provides in this language for education:

## ARTICLE VIII.—EDUCATION AND SCHOOL LANDS.

SEC. 1. The governor shall be superintendent of public instruction, and his powers and duties, in that capacity, shall be such as may be prescribed by law; but after the term of five years from the adoption of this constitution, it shall be competent for the legislative assembly to provide by law for the election of a superintendent, to provide for his compensation, and prescribe his powers and duties.

2. The proceeds of all the lands which have been or hereafter may be granted to this State for educational purposes, (excepting the lands heretofore granted to aid in the establishment of a university;) all the moneys and clear proceeds of all property which may accrue to the State by escheat or forfeiture; all moneys which may be paid as exemption from military duty; the proceeds of all gifts, devises and bequests made by any person to the State for common school purposes; the proceeds of all property granted to the State when the purposes of such grant shall

not be stated; all the proceeds of the five hundred thousand acres of land to which this State is entitled by the provisions of an act of Congress entitled "An act to appropriate the proceeds of the sales of the public lands, and to grant pre-emption rights," approved the fourth of September, 1841; and also the five per centum of the net proceeds of the sales of the public lands to which this State shall become entitled on her admission into the Union, if Congress shall consent to such appropriation of the two grants last mentioned, shall be set apart as a separate and irreducible fund, to be called the common school fund, the interest of which, together with all other revenues derived from the school lands mentioned in this section, shall be exclusively applied to the support and maintenance of common schools in each school district, and the purchase of suitable libraries and apparatus therefor.

3. The legislative assembly shall provide by law for the establishment of a uniform and general system of common schools.

4. Provision shall be made by law for the distribution of the income of the common school fund among the several counties of this State, in proportion to the number of children resident therein between the ages of four and twenty years.

5. The governor, secretary of state, and state treasurer shall constitute a board of commissioners for the sale of school and university lands, and for the investment of the funds arising therefrom; and their powers and duties shall be such as may be prescribed by law: *Provided*, That no part of the university funds, or of the interest arising therefrom, shall be expended until the period of ten years from the adoption of this constitution, unless the same shall be otherwise disposed of by the consent of Congress for common school purposes.

#### KANSAS.

Area, 78,418 square miles. Organized as a Territory in 1854. Admitted into the Union in December, 1859. Population in 1860, 107,206.

The provision for education in its constitution is in these words:

#### ARTICLE VI.—EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. The State superintendent of public instruction shall have the general supervision of the common school funds, and educational interests of the State, and perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law. A superintendent of public instruction shall be elected in each county, whose term of office shall be two years, and whose duty and compensation shall be prescribed by law.

SEC. 2. The legislature shall encourage the promotion of intellectual, moral, scientific, and agricultural improvement by establishing a uniform system of common schools, and schools of higher grade embracing normal, preparatory, collegiate, and university departments.

SEC. 3. The proceeds of all lands that have been or may be granted by the United States and the State for the support of schools, and the five hundred thousand acres of land granted to the new States, under an act of Congress distributing the proceeds of public lands among the several States of the Union, approved September 4, A. D. 1841, and all estates of persons dying without heir or will, and such per cent. as may be granted by Congress on the sale of lands in this State, shall be the common property of the State, and shall be a perpetual school fund, which shall not be diminished, but the interest of which, together with all the rents of the lands, and such other means as the legislature may provide by tax or otherwise, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools.

SEC. 4. The income of the State school funds shall be disbursed annually, by order of the State superintendent, to the several county treasurers, and thereon to the treasurers of the several school districts, in equitable proportion to the number of children and youth resident therein, between the ages of five and twenty-one years: *Provided*, That no school district in which a common school has not

been maintained at least three months in each year shall be entitled to receive any portion of such funds.

SEC. 5. The school lands shall not be sold unless such sale shall be authorized by a vote of the people at a general election, but subject to a revaluation every five years; they may be leased for any number of years not exceeding twenty-five, at a rate established by law.

SEC. 6. All money which shall be paid by persons as an equivalent for exemption from military duty; the clear proceeds of estrays, ownership of which shall vest in the taker up; and the proceeds of fines for any breach of the penal laws, shall be exclusively applied in the several counties in which the money is fined, or fines collected, to the support of common schools.

SEC. 7. Provision shall be made by law for the establishment, at some eligible and central point, of a State university for the promotion of literature, and the arts and sciences, including a normal and agricultural department. All funds arising from the sale or rents of lands granted by the United States to the State for the support of a State university, and all other grants, donations, or bequests, either by the State or by individuals, for such purpose, shall remain a perpetual fund to be called the "University fund," the interest of which shall be appropriated to the support of the State university.

SEC. 8. No religious sect or sects shall ever control any part of the common school or university funds of the State.

SEC. 9. The State superintendent of public instruction, secretary of state, and attorney general shall constitute a board of commissioners for the management and investment of the school funds. Any two of said commissioners shall be a quorum.

#### WEST VIRGINIA.

Area, 23,000 square miles. Admitted as a State in December, 1862.  
Population in 1860, 393,234.

The constitution, as amended February 18, 1863, has the following:

#### ARTICLE X.—EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. All money accruing to this State being the proceeds of forfeited, delinquent, waste, and unappropriated lands, and of lands heretofore sold for taxes, and purchased by the State of Virginia, if hereafter redeemed or sold to others than this State; all grants, devises, or bequests that may be made to this State for the purpose of education, or where the purposes of such grants, devises, or bequests are not specified; this State's personal share of the literary fund of Virginia, whether paid over or otherwise liquidated, and any sums of money, stocks, or other property which this State shall have the right to claim from all persons who may die without leaving a will or heir, and of all escheated lands; the proceeds of any taxes that may be levied on the revenues of any corporation hereafter created; all moneys that may be paid as an equivalent for exemption from military duty; and such sums as may from time to time be appropriated by the legislature for the purpose, shall be set apart as a separate fund to be called the school fund, and invested, under such regulations as may be prescribed by law, in the interest-bearing securities of the United States or of this State; and the interest thereof shall be annually applied to the support of free schools throughout the State, and to no other purpose whatever. But any portion of such interest remaining unexpended at the close of a fiscal year shall be added to, and remain a part of, the capital of the school fund.

SEC. 2. The legislature shall provide, as soon as practicable, for the establishment of a thorough and efficient system of free schools. They shall provide for the support of such schools by appropriating thereto the interest of the invested school fund, the net proceeds of all forfeitures, confiscations, and fines accruing to this State under the laws thereof, and by general taxation on persons or property or otherwise. They shall also provide for raising in each township, by the authority of the people thereof, such a proportion of the amount required for the support of free schools therein as shall be prescribed by general laws.

SEC. 3. Provision may be made by law for the election and prescribing the



duties of a general superintendent of free schools for the State, whose term of office shall be the same as that of the governor, and for a county superintendent of each county; and for the election in the several townships, by the voters thereof, of such officers not specified in this constitution as may be necessary to carry out the objects of this article; and for the organization, whenever it may be deemed expedient, of a State board of instruction.

SEC. 4. The legislature shall foster and encourage moral, intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement; they shall, whenever it may be practicable, make suitable provisions for the blind, mute, and insane, and for the organization of such institutions of learning as the best interests of general education in the State may demand.

#### NEVADA.

Organized as a Territory in 1861. Admitted as a State in 1864.  
Area, 283,500 square miles. Population in 1863, 40,000.

The constitution (1864) provides for education in these words:

#### ARTICLE XI.—EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. The legislature shall encourage, by all suitable means, the promotion of intellectual, literary, scientific, mining, mechanical, agricultural, and moral improvement, and also provide for the election by the people, at the general election, of a superintendent of public instruction, whose term of office shall be two years from the first Monday of January, A. D. eighteen hundred and sixty-five, and until the election and qualification of his successor, and whose duties shall be prescribed by law.

SEC. 2. The legislature shall provide for a uniform system of common schools, by which a school shall be established and maintained in each school district at least six months in every year, and any school district neglecting to establish and maintain such a school, or which shall allow instruction of a sectarian character therein, may be deprived of its portion of the interest of the public school fund during such a neglect or infraction, and the legislature may pass such laws as will tend to secure a general attendance of the children in such school districts upon said public schools.

SEC. 3. All lands, including the sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections in every township, donated for the benefit of public schools in the act of the thirty-eighth Congress to enable the people of Nevada Territory to form a State government, the thirty thousand acres of public lands granted by an act of Congress approved July second, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, for each senator and representative in Congress, and all proceeds of lands that have been or may be hereafter granted or appropriated by the United States to this State, and also the five hundred thousand acres of land granted to the new States under the act of Congress distributing the proceeds of the public lands among the several States of the Union, approved A. D. eighteen hundred and forty-one: *Provided*, That Congress make provision for or authorizes such division to be made for the purpose herein contained; all estates that may escheat to the State; all of such per cent. as may be granted by Congress in the sale of land; all fines collected under the penal laws of the State; all property given or bequeathed to the State for educational purposes; and all proceeds derived from any or all of said sources, shall be, and the same are hereby, solemnly pledged for educational purposes, and shall not be transferred to any other fund for any other uses, and the interest thereon shall, from time to time, be apportioned among the several counties in proportion to the ascertained numbers of the persons between the ages of six and eighteen years in the different counties; and the legislature shall provide for the sale of floating land warrants to cover the aforesaid lands, and for the investment of all proceeds derived from any of the above-mentioned sources in United States bonds or the bonds of the State: *Provided*, That the interest only of the aforesaid proceeds shall be used for educational purposes, and any surplus interest shall be added to the principal sum; *And provided further*, That such portions of said interest as may be necessary may be apportioned for the support of the State university.

SEC. 4. The legislature shall provide for the establishment of a State uni

versity, which shall embrace departments of agriculture, mechanic arts, and mining, to be controlled by a board of regents, whose duties shall be prescribed by law.

SEC. 5. The legislature shall have power to establish normal schools and such different grades of schools, from the primary department to the university, as, in their discretion, they may deem necessary; and all professors in said university or teachers in said schools, of whatever grade, shall be required to take and subscribe to the oath as prescribed in article sixteen of this constitution. No professor or teacher who fails to comply with the provisions of any law framed in accordance with the provisions of this section shall be entitled to receive any portion of the public moneys set apart for school purposes.

SEC. 6. The legislature shall provide a special tax of one-half of one mill on the dollar of all taxable property in the State in addition to the other means provided, for the support and maintenance of said university and common schools: *Provided*, That at the end of ten years they may reduce said tax to one-quarter of one mill on each dollar of taxable property.

SEC. 7. The governor, secretary of state, and superintendent of public instruction shall, for the first four years, and until their successors are elected and qualified, constitute a board of regents to control and manage the affairs of the university and the funds of the same, under such regulations as may be provided by law. But the legislature shall, at its regular session next preceding the expiration of the term of office of the said board of regents, provide for the election of a new board and define their duties.

SEC. 8. The board of regents shall, from the interest accruing from the first funds which come under their control, immediately organize and maintain the said mining department in such manner as to make it the most effective and useful: *Provided*, That all the proceeds of the public lands donated by act of Congress approved July second, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, for a college for the benefit of agriculture, the mechanic arts, and including military tactics, shall be invested by the said board of regents in a separate fund, to be appropriated exclusively to the benefit of the first named departments to the university, as set forth in section four above; and the legislature shall provide that if, through neglect or any other contingency, any portion of the fund so set apart shall be lost or misappropriated, the State of Nevada shall replace said amount so lost or misappropriated in said fund, so that the principal of said fund shall forever remain undiminished.

SEC. 9. No sectarian instruction shall be imparted or tolerate in any school or university that may be established under this constitution

### NEBRASKA.

Organized as a Territory in 1854. Area, 63,300 square miles. Admitted into the Union March, 1867.

Its constitution has the following article on

#### EDUCATION.

SECTION 1. The principal of all funds arising from the sale or other disposition of lands, or other property granted or intrusted to this State for educational and religious purposes, shall forever be preserved inviolate and undiminished; and the income arising therefrom shall be faithfully applied to the specific objects of the original grants or appropriations. The legislature shall make such provisions, by taxation or otherwise, as, with the income arising from the school trust fund, will secure a thorough and efficient system of common schools throughout the State; but no religious sect or sects shall ever have any exclusive right or control of any part of the school funds of this State.

SEC. 2. The university lands, school lands, and all other lands which have been acquired by the Territory of Nebraska, or which may hereafter be acquired by the State of Nebraska for educational or school purposes, shall not be aliened or sold for a less sum than five dollars per acre.

## VI. EDUCATIONAL REFORM IN SILESIA BY FREDERICK II.

BY JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

FROM LETTERS ON SILESIA, WRITTEN IN THE YEARS 1800 AND 1801.\*

LETTER XLII.—*Schools and Seminaries for the Instruction of Youth in Silesia—System of Education established by Frederick II. upon the recommendation of Felbiger.*

BERLIN, March 7th, 1801.

I HAVE promised in this letter to give you some account of the institutions in the province of Silesia for the education of youth. The university at Breslau and the academy of nobles at Liegnitz I need not mention, having noticed them in my letters at the time when we visited those places. Besides these, there are what we call grammar schools, where Latin is taught in almost every town of the province, and usually in connection with some church or convent. But the arrangements and regulations of the trivial schools, as they are here called—schools destined for that elementary instruction which ought to be diffused over the whole mass of the people—particularly deserve your attention, because you may, perhaps, as a native of New England, entertain the prejudice, that your own country is the only spot on earth where this object is rightly managed, and where the arts of reading and writing are accomplishments almost universally possessed.

Probably no country in Europe could so strongly contest our pre-eminence in this respect as Germany, and she, for this honorable distinction, is indebted principally to Frederick II.; to the zeal with which he pursued the purpose of spreading useful knowledge among all classes of his subjects, and to the influence of his example and of his success even beyond the limits of his own dominions. To enter upon this topic, with the details of which it is susceptible, might, perhaps, not amuse you, and would lead me too far from my subject, I shall, therefore, confine myself to the measures he adopted and the system he introduced in this particular into Silesia.

At the time of his conquest education had seldom been made an object of the concern of governments, and Silesia, like the rest of Europe, was but wretchedly provided either with schools or teachers. In the small towns and villages the schoolmasters were so poorly paid, that they

\* First published in consecutive numbers of the Port Folio, Philadelphia, in 1803, and collected and republished in a volume of 387 pages, in London in 1804. The letter on the School System of Silesia was copied, with commendation as an example to the English Government, in the Edinburgh Review for October, 1804, and in the London Quarterly Journal of Education for January, 1831.

could not subsist without practicing some other trade besides their occupation as instructors, and they usually united the character of the village fiddler with that of the village schoolmaster. Even of these there were so few, that the children of the peasants in general, throughout the province, were left untaught. This was especially the case in Upper Silesia. Frederick issued an ordinance, that a school should be kept in every village, and that a competent subsistence should be provided for the schoolmaster, by the joint contribution of the lord of the village and of the tenants themselves. The superintendence of the schools was prescribed as the duty of the clergy.

But in order that this ordinance might have its due execution, it was necessary to form the teachers themselves properly qualified to give useful instruction. This was effected by the persevering intelligence and zeal of a man by the name of Felbiger, an Augustine monk, belonging to a convent at Sagan; a man, says a Silesian historian, whom a great part of Germany must thank for a revolution, not less important, though of slower progress and milder character, than that which, two centuries and a half earlier, was accomplished by another monk of the same order—by Luther.

Felbiger, after spending some years at Berlin to obtain a perfect knowledge of the best method of instruction practiced in the schools there, returned to Sagan, and made the convent to which he belonged a seminary for young ecclesiastics and candidates as schoolmasters to acquire the knowledge of the improved mode of teaching. Several other institutions of the same kind were, in due time, established at Breslau, Glatz, and other places, upon his principles, and conducted by persons whom he had formed. To defray the expenses necessary for the support of these seminaries, a fund is raised, consisting of one quarter's salary, which every Catholic curate is obliged to pay upon being first settled in a parsonage.

With each of these seminaries are connected certain schools, where the young candidates for the clerical or teaching office are obliged to attend and observe the practice of the method, the theory of which they learn at the seminaries themselves. The clergy are required, no less than the teachers, to go through this process, because the superintendence over the teachers is intrusted to them. No young man can be admitted to either of the offices without an attestation of his qualification from one of the seminaries.

After all these preparatory measures had been carried into effect, an ordinance was published in the year 1765 prescribing the mode of teaching as adopted in the seminaries, and the manner in which the clergy should superintend the efficacious establishment of the system. The regulations of this ordinance prove the earnestness with which the king of Prussia labored to spread the benefits of useful knowledge among his subjects. The teachers are directed to give plain instruction, and upon objects applicable to the ordinary concerns of life; not merely to load

the memory of their scholars with words, but to make things intelligible to their understanding; to habituate them to the use of their own reason, by explaining every object of the lesson so that the children themselves may be able to explain it upon examination. The candidates for school-keeping must give specimens of their ability, by teaching at one of the schools connected with the seminary, in the presence of the professors at the seminary, that they may remark and correct any thing defective in the candidate's method. If one school suffices for more than one village, neither of them must be more than half a German mile distant from it in the flat country, nor more than a quarter of a mile in the mountainous parts. The school tax must be paid by the lord and tenants without distinction of religions. In the towns the school must be kept the whole year round. It is expected that one month shall suffice to make a child know the letters of the alphabet; that in two it shall be able to join them; and in three to read. The boys must all be sent to school, from their sixth to their thirteenth year, whether the parents are able to pay the school tax or not. For the poor, the school money must be raised by collections. Every parent or guardian who neglects to send his child or pupil to school, without sufficient cause, is obliged to pay a double school tax, for which the guardians shall have no allowance. Every curate must examine weekly the children of the school in his parish. A general examination must be held annually, by the deans of the districts, of the schools within their respective precincts; and a report of the condition of the schools, the talents and attention of the schoolmasters, the state of the buildings, and of attendance by the children, made to the office of the vicar-general, who must transmit all these reports to the royal domain offices. From these, orders are issued to the respective landraths to correct the abuses and supply the deficiencies indicated in the reports. This system was at first prepared only for the Catholic schools; but it was afterwards adopted, for the most part, by most of the Lutheran consistories. Its truly respectable author, Felbiger, was, in the sequel, with the consent of Frederick, invited to Vienna by the Empress Maria Theresa, and her son Joseph II., who appointed him director of the normal schools or seminaries in all the Austrian dominions. His regulations have been introduced and are acted upon in almost all the Catholic countries of Germany.

In Silesia they had at first many old prejudices to contend with. The indolence of the Catholic clergy was averse to the new and troublesome duty imposed on them. Their zeal was alarmed at the danger arising from this dispersion of light to the stability of their church. They considered alike the spirit of innovation and the spirit of inquiry as their natural enemies. Besides this, the system still meets resistance from the penurious parsimony and stubborn love of darkness prevailing in some parts of the province. Many villages neglect the support of their schools; many individuals, upon false pretences, forbear sending their children to school for the sake of saving the tax. The compulsive measures and the

penalties prescribed by the ordinance are used seldom and with reluctance. The benevolent design has not been accomplished to the full extent of which it was susceptible; but as far as it has been accomplished its operation has been a blessing. That its effects have been very extensive is not to be doubted, when we compare the number of schools throughout the province in the year 1752 when they amounted only to one thousand five hundred and fifty-two, with that in the year 1798 when they were more than three thousand five hundred. The consequences of a more general diffusion of knowledge are attested by many other facts equally clear. Before the seven years' war, there had scarcely ever been more than one periodical journal or gazette published in the province at one time. There are now no less than seventeen newspapers and magazines which appear by the day, the week, the month, or the quarter, many of them upon subjects generally useful, and containing valuable information and instruction for the people. At the former period there were but three booksellers, and all these at Breslau. There are now six in that capital, and seven dispersed about in the other cities. The number of printing-presses and of bookbinders has increased in the same proportion.

Dr. Johnson, in his *Life of Watts*, has bestowed a just and exalted encomium upon him for not disdaining to descend from the pride of genius and the dignity of science to write for the wants and the capacities of children. "Every man acquainted," says he, "with the common principles of human actions, will look with veneration on the writer, who is at one time combating Locke, and at another time making a catechism for children in their fourth year." But how much greater still is the tribute of admiration irresistibly drawn from us, when we behold an absolute monarch, the greatest general of his age, eminent as a writer in the highest departments of literature, descending, in a manner, to teach the alphabet to the children of his kingdom; bestowing his care, his persevering assiduity, his influence and his power, in diffusing plain and useful knowledge among his subjects; in opening to their minds the first and most important pages of the book of science; in filling the whole atmosphere they breathed with that intellectual fragrance which had before been imprisoned in the vials of learning, or inclosed within the gardens of wealth! Immortal Frederick! when seated on the throne of Prussia, with kneeling millions at thy feet, thou wast only a king. On the fields of Leuthen, of Zorndorf, of Rosbach, of so many other scenes of human blood and anguish, thou wast only a hero. Even in thy rare and glorious converse with the muses and with science, thou wast only a philosopher, an historian, a poet; but in this generous ardor, this active and enlightened zeal for the education of thy people, thou wast truly great—the father of thy country—the benefactor of mankind.

Yours, &c.



## II.—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN AUSTRIA.

(Continued from Vol. xvi., p. 352.)

### II.—SECONDARY INSTRUCTION IN THE NON-HUNGARIAN PROVINCES.

#### I.—HISTORY OF GYMNASIUMS.

UP to the time of the Empress Maria Theresa, under whom the present system of secondary instruction was inaugurated, the subjects and methods of teaching in the Latin schools of Austria, as in the schools of the Jesuits everywhere, bore the impress of the "*Ratio et Institutio Studiorum*" of Aquaviva.\* In Bohemia and Moravia, under Rudolph II, (1577–1612,) there flourished some thirty Protestant schools, based upon Melancthon's system of classical study,† and under the direction of the University at Prague. Great zeal was shown by the cities of the provinces in sustaining these institutions, and the rectors of the University, from time to time, prescribed the course of study that should be followed. The most noted of these regulations were the "*Schola Zatecensis*" of the learned Jacobus Strabo (1575), the "*Ordo Studiorum*" of Petrus Codicillus (1586), and the rules of 1609, which established five classes and prescribed the grammar of Philip Ramée, the dialogues of Castalian and Vives, the epistles and select orations of Cicero, Ovid's *Tristia*, Virgil's *Æneid*, selections from Horace, Buchanan, and the Greek Testament, with Plutarch and some other historians.

At the abolition of the order of Jesuits there were thirty-seven gymnasia under their direction in the provinces then belonging to the Empire, of which the oldest was that at Innsbruck. As characteristic of these schools it is scarcely necessary to mention the division of the course into three "grammar" classes, devoted to "the rudiments," "grammar," and "syntax," with some times a preparatory class—two "humanity" classes, for "poetry" and "rhetoric"—and a two or three years' "philosophical" course, in "logic," "physics" and "metaphysics"; the almost exclusive use of the Latin language in both speaking and writing; and the only occasional introduction of "real" instruction in the lower classes, while it was totally neglected in the higher. Great stress has been laid by the defenders of the system of the Jesuits upon the prominence given in the selection of candidates to the order, to their efficiency as teachers; upon the general use and extended study of the Latin tongue; upon the requirement that each member of the order, after two years of university

\* Am. Jour. of Ed., Vol. xiv., p. 462.

† Am. Jour. of Ed., Vol. iv., p. 749.

study, should become the teacher of a grammar class, thus supplementing the zeal and devotion of youth to the more mature experience and wisdom of the prefects and masters of the higher classes; upon the usual requirement of three years of service in the instruction of the higher classes before the completion of the theological course; and upon the advantages resulting from the wealth and full endowment of their schools. On the other hand it is asserted that less worthy considerations often governed in the selection of members and in the management of the schools; that "Jesuits' Latin" bore an ill repute among the lovers of pure Latinity, while more accordance was given to the practical use of that language than accords with the spirit of more recent times; that the rules which regulated the removal and change of teachers were such as to make thorough instruction impossible, especially in the philosophical classes; that in these classes the classics and applied mathematics were wholly neglected, and other instruction given only by dictation; and that the amount of instruction was greatly limited by the length of the vacations and the number of holidays. It may at least be asserted, without injustice, that while their schools for a long period answered fully the demands of the times, and were the admiration of even their opponents, yet the stubbornness with which they clung to the forms of scholasticism and humanism, in which their system of instruction originated, showed itself at length unfavorably in the want of originality of thought, in an exclusive fostering of a mere fluency in the use of language, in an utter indifference to the national tongue and to popular enlightenment and culture, and in a fondness for abstract, barren speculation, and a proneness to dogmatism.

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the Piarists also gradually extended their schools from Bohemia into the other provinces, and in 1773 they numbered twenty-four gymnasiums. They were not strictly bound to the plan of instruction adopted by their founder and followed in general the method of the Jesuits, but giving more attention to Greek, German, history, geography, mathematics, and physics. The candidates, after two years' training, were obliged to teach six or eight years in the common schools before a position could be obtained in a gymnasium. It is to the credit of this order that their schools rivaled in efficiency and reputation the institutions of the far more wealthy and powerful order of the Jesuits. There were also a score of schools of a similar grade under the charge of the Benedictine and other religious orders, including one at Roveredo, conducted by lay teachers, and a single Protestant gymnasium, founded at Teschen in 1709.

The attempt to reform the Jesuit system may be said to have commenced with the eighteenth century, under Joseph I., who, in 1711, called the attention of the rector of the University to the condition of the philosophical course. A commissioner was appointed by the emperor Charles VI. to propose a plan of reform for the entire University, before whom the Jesuits defended their system as in every respect unexceptionable. The commission made no report, but in 1735 the Emperor issued a decree which for the first

time placed their educational operations under government control, and was intended to promote the introduction of a more judicious and better regulated course of study. The attention of Maria Theresa was drawn to the subject long before her efforts for the improvement of the common schools, and Gerhard van Swieten, previously of Leyden, was selected to guide the reform, who was keen in detecting faults and prompt in applying remedies, but unlike some of his successors, willingly recognized and retained whatever was of value in the existing system. Even during the war of the Austrian succession, (which made more evident than ever before the unity of interest of the several provinces,) the Empress instituted inquiries into the condition of instruction, especially in the Protestant gymnasiums of Bohemia, and as a consequence, in 1747, required that greater attention should be everywhere given to history, Greek, and arithmetic, and to the gradual introduction of German grammar. The vacations were to be shortened, much useless instruction was done away with, and in the philosophical course the study of ethics, politics, and applied mathematics was required. Serfs were to be admitted to the schools only with the consent of their lords, and to still further assure the benefits of the schools to those best able to improve them, scholars of proven incapacity were to be immediately removed. At the same time the attainment of an academical degree was made necessary before entrance upon theological or medical study.

This reform was extended by the more general decrees of 1752, which made the course of study still more prescribed, permitted instruction in the prescribed branches only in the authorized gymnasiums, provided a system of inspection and examination, with semi-annual reports to the imperial government, and required the preparation and use of improved text-books. In 1760, a State Board was formed for the supervision of education and text-books, consisting of Swieten and Archbishop Migazzi, while subordinate boards were formed in the several provinces. These changes were introduced but imperfectly and with great difficulty, though the books for instruction, in the languages especially, were revised and improved. Some of the forms of superintendence were never carried into effect. The provincial boards appointed were at first composed entirely of Jesuits, but the war upon the order by the State, the secular clergy, and many of the other religious orders, had now commenced in earnest, their places were soon filled by others, and their influence at the Universities was rapidly and greatly diminished. Finally, in 1772, the order was entirely abolished, and, as a consequence, the whole subject of gymnasial reform assumed a new aspect. The extensive possessions of the order were appropriated by the State, and the larger portion shortly afterwards was devoted to educational uses, and has since constituted what has been usually styled the "Educational Fund." The gymnasiums of the Jesuits thus became endowed State institutions. But the Empress deemed it advisable that their number should be somewhat diminished,

both on account of the want of teachers, which could not otherwise be remedied but by the appointment of *ex-Jesuits*, and for the purpose of procuring means, even at the expense of the gymnasiums, for the improvement of the common schools. Another prominent motive was the fear lest agriculture, trade and commerce should suffer if the facilities for entering upon literary pursuits were too great. A number of the more incomplete and poorly endowed institutions were accordingly gradually suppressed, amounting in all to thirty-two, and embracing some that had not belonged to the Jesuits.

The necessity, however, for a more complete and uniform organization of the schools that remained was no less urgent than before. The State Board of Education, temporarily suspended in 1772, upon the death of Swieten and resignation of the Archbishop, who was opposed to many of the proposed changes, was revived in 1774, with Kressel as president, and required to report a plan of reform for all the educational institutions of the Empire, including common schools, gymnasiums, convent schools, academies, and universities, and giving special consideration to the question of the general use of the German language in instruction. A partial report, giving a plan of study for the "philosophical" course, drawn up by Martini, was made, and received the approval of the Empress during the same year, and provision was made for the introduction of the revised course in the University at Vienna, and as soon as possible in the other universities and convent schools. The question of gymnasial reform, however, was not so easily decided, and occasioned hot dispute between two opposing parties—the one favoring the system of the Jesuits, the other desiring to introduce a course and method similar to those which years of trial in the more advanced German States, especially in Prussia and Saxony, had proven so excellent and advantageous. Prominent among the plans proposed by the latter party was one advanced by Prof. Hess, of the Vienna University, which regarding the gymnasiums as institutions chiefly for general instruction, preparatory to higher scientific study, still retained Latin as the principal branch, but added to it a judicious and somewhat extended course of Greek and German study, mathematics, history, and natural science—the whole wrought out with much minuteness of detail. Martini recognized its many excellencies and warmly recommended it to the approval of the State Board, and after being modified by Hess in some of its wider deviations from the existing system, it was reported by them to the Empress, and by her referred to her principal ministers for their opinions. But the idea that a gymnasium should not have an exclusively philological character had not yet gained general favor, and while many experienced schoolmen received and sustained the projected change with enthusiasm, many others prominent in the government were as violently opposed to it. The Empress finally appealed to Gratian Marx, then principal of the Savoy Ritter Academy, who laid before a special Educational Board a plan which was approved by

them, and shortly afterwards, (October, 1775,) received the imperial sanction.

This system of Marx was fashioned upon the model of the Piarist institutions, in which, through the concerted action of the principals, various changes and reforms had been made as early as 1763. But beyond stricter regulations respecting the qualifications for admission, the semi-annual examinations and classification of the students and the removal of such as were found incompetent, the requirement of a thorough knowledge of Latin and its use in both speaking and writing on the part of all students intended for the university, and special provision for the supervision of the gymnasiums in the several provinces, the changes in the course of study were made only gradually as proper text-books were prepared, and were still incomplete at the death of the Empress in 1780. In the three grammar classes, the principal aim was still to speak Latin with correctness, to which was added a slight knowledge of Greek and some instruction in arithmetic, geography, and history, with the catechism. In the two humanity classes, all the instruction in the languages was given wholly in Latin, and admission and promotion depended upon the proficiency of the scholars in its use. Additional teachers were here provided for instruction in Greek, and though the standing of the students was not effected by their proficiency in this language, no premiums could be gained without satisfactory progress in it. Increased attention was to be given to mathematics, history, and geography, and as was previously the case, admission to the philosophical course depended upon the result of an examination in the studies of the gymnasium. No children of the class of serfs could be admitted to these classes, even so late as 1804, without permission from the public authorities.

But Joseph II., notwithstanding all that was done by him for the benefit of the common schools, had but little sympathy with many of the plans of gymnasial reform. The idea of Hess, that the gymnasiums should be made institutions for laying the ground-work of a general education, seemed a dream that was impossible to be realized. Their proper aim appeared to him rather to be the education of capable civil officers, the inculcation of "morality,"\* and the imparting of such instruction as was most immediately and practically useful. The legislation of his reign was chiefly confined to general instructions to directors and teachers in relation to text-books, and a single ordinance upon the subject of instruction and discipline. The practical acquisition of the Latin language was made the principal object, the secondary branches being left in a great measure to the pleasure of the individual teachers. The course and amount of instruction were carefully regulated and none but the prescribed text-books were permitted, to the exclusion of the many manuscript works in

\*The term "morality," as often used in this connection, does not convey at once to the American mind its true, prominent idea, implying, as it does, a habit of obedience to constituted authority, and compliance with law, which makes its inculcation a matter of supreme political importance.

which teachers had, too often to the detriment of their pupils, shown off their learning or self-conceit. Corporal punishment was prohibited and a system of rewards and punishments substituted, by means of records of merit and demerit, seats of honor and disgrace, and various similar methods of appeal to the sensitiveness of the scholars. Private meetings and societies of students, of a religious character, were forbidden, and regular attendance upon public worship, daily mass, catechetical instruction, &c., was made obligatory. The philosophical classes were also reorganized, the only essential reform being the substitution of the German language for the Latin, till this time exclusively used in instruction. Upon the whole, the character and efficiency of this higher department, under the influences bearing upon it, had deteriorated. In addition to these regulations, Greek was afterwards made so far obligatory upon the university classes that even the lowest grade for certificate could not be obtained without satisfactory progress in it. Hitherto, instruction in the gymnasiums had been gratuitous, and aided by the religious orders many had attended who afterwards found it difficult to sustain themselves through a course of university study. To discourage the attendance of such students, and also to increase the number of stipends, tuition fees were now exacted, varying from twelve to eighteen florins in the different gymnasial and philosophical classes, and the amount thus raised was added to the fund from which stipends were granted to students designed for the university. At the same time, the "seminaries" and boarding schools (*convicts*) were abolished, and their property added to the same fund. The establishment of private institutions was discouraged and valid certificates could be granted only by the gymnasiums, on which account their semi-annual examinations were open to private pupils. It soon, however, became evident, even to the government, that these schools were not fulfilling their object, and the more that no means were provided for the training of their teachers. Simply to pass the semi-annual examinations became the sole purpose for which the pupils studied, and discipline disappeared as its religious foundation was swept away by the rationalistic tendencies of the times. The party that had opposed the Emperor's reforms, especially in religious matters, called attention to these evils, and memorialized the throne for their reform. The Emperor himself acknowledged the force of these complaints, and only a few days before his death, (February, 1790,) appointed a commission to report a plan for the more perfect organization and gradation of the gymnasiums and higher schools. His successor, Leopold II., to whom the complaints were renewed, entrusted the reform to Martini, already president of the commission appointed by Joseph. Martini's plan, which went into effect in October, 1790, consisted in the formation of a "Teachers' Association" in each university department and in each gymnasium, which should have control of the instruction in their institutions, subject to the general direction of the "Educational Session" in each province, which was in turn subject indirectly to the higher school officials. Some provision was



made for the supply of more capable teachers, but the details of the plan upon these and other points, instruction, discipline, &c., are of the less importance as it was never carried but imperfectly into operation.

Emperor Francis succeeded Leopold II. in 1792. He favored the peculiar views of his minister, Rottenhann, who recognized the superiority of the gymnasiums of Protestant Germany, and recommended an examination of them and of the public schools of England. But in his opinion the higher speculative and historical branches of the philosophical course should be placed as far as possible out of general reach, and their pursuit by those who intended to engage in the practical business of life, and who could not hope to acquire a thorough understanding of them, should be discouraged as dangerous. Ordinary men should be content with the studies of immediate use to them and with received rules and principles. Prominence should therefore be given in the philosophical classes to mathematics and the natural sciences, while the instruction in history should be conducted with great care and judgment, to avoid conveying dangerous impressions and erroneous ideas, and a complete course of philosophical study should be established at only two or three of the universities. The correctness of these opinions was immediately questioned and warmly discussed by the Board of Educational Reform, which was appointed in 1795, and the debate was continued until interrupted for the consideration of the special reports upon the different classes of institutions, made by the individual members of the Board. The report upon gymnasiums was drawn up by I. F. Lang, principal of one of the Vienna schools, and of high reputation for scholarship and success in teaching. Rottenhann submitted a plan for a "lyceal course," as a substitute for the philosophical classes, and as intermediate between the gymnasial course and a course of true philosophical study. Reports upon instruction in special branches were also made by Gerstner, of the Prague University, by Mumelter, of the Vienna University, and others.

The final report of the Board was not made until 1799, and some time passed before any decisive measures were taken. In 1802, the Teachers' Associations, which had become very unpopular, were abolished, and the previously existing offices of superintendent of gymnasiums and of the higher departments, were restored. Lang was appointed to the former position. Meanwhile several ordinances were issued, designed to aid the enforcement of stricter discipline, and to foster a proper religious feeling, in opposition to the infidel tendencies of the age. Every gymnasium was required to have a catechist, by whom two hours of religious instruction should be given weekly, and his good report was essential to promotion to a higher class or to the holding of a stipend. Attendance at mass and at religious worship was strictly required, the conduct of pupils, even out of school hours, was under supervision, and their progress in school was encouraged by frequent reviews and examinations. Record was to be kept of the conduct and standing of each pupil, which at the completion

of his studies should be returned to the government and have decisive weight in the making of official appointments.

The first general measure of reform, differing in many respects from that proposed by Lang, was adopted in 1805. By this the number of classes in the higher gymnasiums was increased to six, and there were required to be as many teachers as classes, each strictly confined to instruction in a single branch. The hours of study were limited to eighteen in the week, half which were devoted to Latin throughout the course. Three hours were given to geography and history, two to mathematics, and the remaining two to natural history and physics in the three lower classes, and to Greek in the higher. The speaking of Latin was again strictly insisted upon in the third and higher classes. The students were to be graded according to conduct and proficiency into three divisions, by which promotion from one class to another should be governed, and at each semi-annual examination prize books were to be awarded. No private tutor or teacher could give instruction in the studies of the gymnasium without the permission of the prefect, (except country pastors in the aid of poor boys,) and private pupils in gymnasial towns were required to pay the tuition fees, to be present at the monthly examinations, and to pay an annual examination tax. A number of improved text-books were speedily issued, with detailed instructions and judicious advice respecting their use, for such as having been class teachers were least prepared to act as department teachers.

In 1808, all the regulations respecting study, instruction and discipline were gathered into a "gymnasial code," thus completing the organization of these schools, as the "School Constitution" had done for the common schools. The superintendency beyond the provincial capitals was committed to the officials of the circles—the subordinate supervision of the religious gymnasiums to the principals of the orders, and of the remainder to suitable members of the clergy. The director in each capital was also superintendent of gymnasial instruction throughout the province, and the one at Vienna was the referee for the gymnasial system in the State Board of Education, which had been re-established. By Lang's indefatigable exertions, the hitherto insufficient salaries of the teachers were raised, notwithstanding the unfavorable condition of the State finances, and amounted now to 5-800 florins, which resulted in drawing not a few able teachers from the legal profession.

A re-organization was at the same time being effected in the philosophical course, which was limited at the lyceums to two years and included only the most essential branches, but at the universities was extended to three years and afforded thorough philosophical instruction. The obligatory branches were religion, giving a more doctrinal basis to what had previously been taught historically,—philosophy, embracing psychology, logic, metaphysics, and moral philosophy,—elementary mathematics, physics, and general history. The instruction in philosophy, mathematics, and physics was given in Latin, while some attention was also given

to Greek. Two years study only was required of theological students, the third year being for those intending a full university course. The study of physiology was required of those designed for the medical profession, and of Austrian history of legal students. The optional studies were æsthetics, with reference particularly to German literature, history of the arts and sciences, pedagogy, practical geometry, agriculture and technology, to which a fourth year could be given. Full liberty was given for the study of diplomacy, the higher mathematics, astronomy, the modern languages, &c. The text-books were prescribed, and the examinations and gradation of the students as at the gymnasiums. The salaries at the lyceums were 800-1,000fl., at the universities 1,000-1,200fl., at Vienna 1,100-1,500fl., (afterwards raised to 1,500-2,000fl.)

Vacant teacherships, when under the control of the State, were open to competition, and the choice determined by an examination of the candidates. The first attempt at the special instruction of teachers was made at Vienna in 1809, but unsuccessfully. In 1811, two assistant teacherships were established with the same design at the university gymnasiums, and also in connection with the philosophical classes at Vienna and Prague.

The number of the gymnasiums had, during this time, gradually increased, owing to the efforts of the religious orders to thus strengthen themselves and at the same time remedy the prevalent scarcity of candidates for the priesthood, many communities also showing a willingness to contribute freely for the establishment of new schools, or the restoration of those that had been suspended. Upon the re-establishment of the Austrian monarchy, after the fall of Napoleon, the gymnasial system of Austria was extended to Salzburg, Carniola, the Littorale, Tyrol and Vorarlberg, and Dalmatia. Some time was found requisite for the re-organization of the schools of Tyrol and Dalmatia, and yet more for that of the gymnasiums and higher schools of Lombardy and Venice. In 1818, philosophical departments existed in connection with the three universities at Vienna, Prague, and Lemberg, and at eight lyceums in as many different provinces. There were also twelve "philosophical schools." The number of gymnasiums was eighty-two, of which twenty-five were in Bohemia, nine in Moravia, eight in each of the provinces of Lower Austria, Tyrol, and Galicia, five in Styria, four in Silesia, three in Dalmatia, while Upper Austria, Carinthia, Carniola, the Littorale, and the Frontier had each two, and Salzburg and Bukowina had each one.

Though the rigidly enforced adherence to the prescribed text-books and to the regulations respecting the extent and distribution of lessons tended to make instruction mechanical on the part of both teacher and scholar, yet much was effected through the labors of the more faithful teachers. But after the peace that relieved the Empire from its struggles with its foreign enemies, a successful effort was made to effect a retrograde movement, and to return gymnasial instruction to the position which it held in the days of Maria Theresa. Everything that favored progress in educa-

tion it had become customary to denounce as revolutionary, as protestant and hostile to the church, as Prussian and dangerous to Austria. In 1815, Francis had already taken measures to this end, and in 1818 the system of class teachers was restored and in the following year the time given to instruction in Latin was increased at the expense of that in geography and history, while natural history and physics were wholly omitted. The system of class teachers, already proven inefficient when it made less extensive demands upon the abilities of the teachers, could but decidedly increase the mechanical character of the instruction given, few having a satisfactory capacity for teaching more than one branch and beyond this but a mere understanding of the contents of the text-books in other branches. An improvement in the text-books now became a prime necessity, but they were left untouched, notwithstanding, too, the great advances that had been made in philological and other sciences. The spirit of alienation from the rest of Germany was producing its legitimate fruits.

In 1820, it was further proposed to limit the philosophical course to those branches most necessary as preparatory for the higher departments. In 1824, this change was effected and the course reduced to two years, to which a third could be added for the optional branches. Instruction was mostly given in German, (or Italian in Lombardy and Venice,) and with the new text-books that followed, the connection between the gymnasium and the philosophical course was wholly severed, and the latter burdened with an amount of mathematics and philosophy for which the lower classes gave no preparation. By this a restriction was laid upon the number of students preparing for the universities, more effectual than all previous ordinances, though other less prominent measures had a tendency to the same result. Not more than forty per cent., upon an average, of those who entered the philosophical course completed the second year's studies. There were, indeed, institutions that were less strict, but their reputation was low, and the discipline exceedingly loose. But even in the better institutions, discipline was more or less defective, and only personal influence or despotic severity on the part of individual teachers could govern the unruly crowds of the lecture hall.

This condition of things was sufficient, even under the political restraints of that day, to arouse a number of the friends of education to an earnest struggle against it. The most noteworthy of the articles published by these men in 1828 were those of Professors Baumgartner, Ettinghausen, and Ficker, complaining of the compression of the entire study of geometry and physics into three semesters of the philosophical course, of the subordinate position of Latin philology and complete neglect of Greek philology, and of the degraded position of natural and general history. The government, indeed, had never had very strong confidence in the continuance of the new plan of philosophical study, which had been approved at first for only four years, but though these opposing views were received and listened to by the still existing Reform Board, yet no

action was ever taken upon them. It was not until 1837, the third year of the reign of Ferdinand I., that Hallaschka, then superintendent of philosophical studies, could again broach the question of reform. He urged the re-establishment of the three years' course, at least in the higher institutions, and, in general, a return as far as possible to the plan abandoned in 1824, but still retaining German (and Italian in Lombardy and Venice,) as the language of instruction. This was not wholly without result. In 1838, an examination was made into the condition of the gymnasiums, and an expression of opinion as to their improvement was required from all the gymnasial and philosophical directors, prior to any change in the philosophical studies. The opinion in favor of a thorough reform was unanimous, the chief defects being that attention was principally given to the Latin grammar and too little to the means of higher training to be found in a more comprehensive reading of the classics, that the speaking and writing of this language were taught very inefficiently, that the limitation of Greek merely to the grammar made it very distasteful to the pupils, that the instruction in mathematics laid no sufficient basis for the requirements of the first philosophical year, that more stress was laid throughout upon memorizing than upon mental apprehension, and that success was made yet more difficult by the want of any institution for the special training of teachers, by the deficiencies of the old textbooks, and by the over-crowding of the classes.

These views and the accompanying plans of reform were submitted to an able commission appointed in 1841, whose report, in which many of the proposed changes were approved, was received and for the most part accepted by the State Board of Education, but still no measures were taken for carrying them into execution. In 1844, the same commission were called upon for a second expression of their views, who in reply reiterated and defended their former positions. This report, however, gave rise to a discussion of the expediency of a general introduction of the department system of teachers, and induced an inquiry in reply to which three professors of the Vienna and as many of the Prague philosophical department gave an essentially unanimous opinion in its favor. The Board of Education in 1845 fully approved the report of the commission, but limited its action to a reduction of the weekly lessons to eighteen, seven of which were given to Latin, two each to religion, mathematics and German, two to geography and history, one to physics, and two in the four higher classes to Greek. A second commission had at the same time been appointed for the revision of the plan of philosophical study, who adopted essentially the proposition already made in 1837, going back to the system that had been laid aside in 1824, but insisting more decidedly than that had done upon the close connection that should exist between the obligatory philosophical course and the gymnasial studies. The necessity for reform found expression finally also in the press, even under the restrictions of the censorship. But the various projects thus advanced from all sides remained without result till in Octo-

ber, 1847, the distinction of three upper and three lower gymnasial classes was generally allowed, as well as the drawing up of new rules of discipline, and by way of trial the introduction of the reformed plan of gymnasial study, (but with class teachers and a department teacher of mathematics and physics,) was permitted for six years in Vienna, Prague, Lemberg, and Milan. The political revolution of the following year was more radical and more prompt in its operation.

There were at this time in the Empire (not including Lombardy and Venice,) philosophical classes at six universities, five lyceums, and fifteen philosophical schools. The number of gymnasiums was eighty-three. The number of students attending the gymnasiums was 19,657 in 1828, 18,567 in 1838, and 21,612 in 1847, among whom are included 1,597 private pupils. In the same year the number of students pursuing the obligatory philosophical course was approximately 4,770. In Lombardy and Venice, besides the fourteen imperial gymnasiums, there were thirteen communal, twenty-two episcopal, seven "convicts," and eight private gymnasiums, three gymnasial institutes, and twenty-one gymnasial schools. Only the first two classes can be considered as wholly and the next two as partially public institutions, and hence of the 15,540 pupils, 4,426 were private scholars. So the philosophical schools were divided into twelve public, twenty-one episcopal, sixteen convent, and twenty-six private institutions, the pupils in the public and episcopal schools numbering 3,276.

The results of gymnasial instruction up to this time have already been sufficiently indicated, their strongest condemnation being found in the pleas for reform continually urged by the highest educational authorities. In the political revolution that now occurred, rejuvenated Austria found no branch of public instruction so ripe and ready for successful re-organization as the gymnasiums. Feuchtersleben, in his "Outlines of a System of Public Instruction," laid down as the object of the gymnasium an advanced general education, using as a principal means the ancient languages and their literature, annexing to it the philosophical course, and for this purpose making the number of classes eight. The distinction of the upper and lower gymnasiums he based upon the essential difference of instruction in each, giving class teachers to the one and department teachers to the other. The subjects of instruction he made nearly the same as had been settled upon in the previous discussions and reports.

But the most efficient agent in the re-organization of the intermediate schools was Exner, ministerial councillor. Acting when revolution and rapid change were the order of the day, the incorporation of the philosophical course into the gymnasiums located wherever philosophical classes had previously existed, was decreed in August, 1848. The addition of similar classes to other gymnasiums was left to the choice of the communities, but instruction in German and in natural history was introduced into all gymnasiums. This change began with the school year in 1849. The bestowal of the professorship of philology at Vienna upon



Hermann Bonitz, brought to Exner's aid one who united unwonted acuteness and genius for systematizing with an intimate knowledge of the intermediate schools and their wants. From their united exertions sprang the "Plan for the organization of the gymnasiums and real schools of Austria," which was published by the Ministry of Instruction, 16th Sept. 1849. It is necessary here only to indicate the essential points of the reform thus inaugurated. The philosophical course was separated entirely from the higher department and united with the humanity classes to form the "upper gymnasium," from which the "lower gymnasium" was distinct in gradation, serving as a preparatory department in all branches. The gymnasium should afford all the means necessary for attaining a general advanced education, combining thorough mathematics and scientific instruction with philological training and the study of history, the main difficulty being to unite harmoniously the instruction in all the different branches. The board of teachers was made the primary organ of administration; the director, taking the place of the former local director, vice-director, and prefect, became responsible for the uniformity and firmness of the management, and also took part in instruction. A medium was devised between the systems of class and department teachers, by dividing the branches of study into groups in the examination for teacherships, creating the class "ordinarius" as the center of union of each class, and having a classification of the scholars under each study, as well as a general class gradation. Competitive examinations for teacherships were abolished. The hours of study were from twenty-two to twenty-six in a week. The purposeless reading of poor Latin, and the previous waste of time upon poetry and rhetoric, gave place as far as possible to the extended reading of classic authors, while more time was given to Greek, and the claims of the German and of the several provincial languages received full consideration. The study of geography was mostly united with that of history, which was both biographical and chronological in its character. Metaphysics and moral philosophy were deemed suited only to a ripper age and the fuller preparation of the university. In the discipline all pupils were upon a common footing, the higher classes holding a different position only as far as would naturally follow from their more advanced age. The eight years' course was closed by a "maturity examination," which was made essential to admission to the universities, and aside from the requirement of this examination the State renounced control of every kind over private instruction in the gymnasial branches.

The energy with which this plan was carried into speedy operation is eminently due, to Count Thun, who entered upon this service with an especial predilection, while remarkable efficiency was also shown by the provincial authorities. In 1850, the philosophical classes that had hitherto existed at the universities, lyceums, and philosophical schools, were wholly merged in the gymnasiums, and communities, corporations, and

individuals aided liberally in forming these classes in other places, and in the endowment of new institutions. Seminaries for the training of teachers were shortly opened at Vienna, Prague, Lemberg, Parvia, and Padua, and considerable appropriations were granted for the aid of aspirants to teacherships. To insure uniformity in carrying out the new system of instruction and an interchange of opinions among the teachers, conferences of directors and teachers in all the provinces were encouraged, and chiefly through the exertions of Bonitz a journal devoted to the interests of the gymnasiums was established.

The new organization did not include instruction in religion. Negotiations were entered into by the Minister with the convention of Bishops assembled at Vienna in 1849, and it was agreed that this instruction should be under the direction of the bishops in their respective districts. The old text-books in all branches were at once removed, the bishops discarding also those that had been used in religious instruction, and though the principal dependence was necessarily at first upon books of foreign production, yet measures were immediately taken for the composition and publication within the Empire of suitable text-books of every grade. Moreover, for the furtherance of gymnasial reform, school statistics were found to be an indispensable need, and were taken in hand simultaneously by the Gymnasial Journal and the statistical bureau.

In 1753, Exner fell a sacrifice to his excessive labors, leaving his work still incomplete. His place was supplied by Kleemann. Increased consistency and completeness were gradually given to the new system by additional enactments, and on the 9th of December, 1854, it was decisively approved. To this were added regulations respecting the official rank of teachers, and in 1856 the final law upon the examination of candidates for teacherships.

There was of course no want of violent opposition to the new order of things. A considerable portion of the clergy and of the higher officials sympathized with those who favored an exclusively Austrian nationality. Loud complaints were continually arising of the complete supplanting of the old by the new, of a disposition to favor whatever was of foreign origin, and systematic attempts at Germanization, of the overburdening of the pupils, of the neglect of religious instruction, of a deficiency of Latin instruction, and of the severity of the maturity examination. The Ministry of Instruction opposed with determined earnestness the efforts of the national party, and even went so far beyond the early plan of reorganization as to make the German language an obligatory study at all gymnasiums and the prevalent language of instruction except in Lombardy and Venice. But on the other hand the views of the ministry coincided in many respects with the other demands of the opposition, and subsequent enactments indicated a wavering of purpose in regard to the plan of studies and its operation. This attitude of the government towards its own work was not without its influence upon the agents ap-

pointed for its execution, and from official circles complaints began to arise of the unsatisfactory results of the system. The seminaries, indeed, were actively engaged in their duties, the Journal ably investigated various important questions, and school literature grew in compass and in depth, but many faults in the carrying out of the system, which in the zeal of earlier years had been overlooked, now excited attention and became an element of strength to the opposition.

In 1857 the Ministry of Instruction published a series of proposed modifications, and required the *Gymnasial Journal* to open its columns to a discussion of their merits. The proposals, however, as a whole, found but a single defender, the many remaining writers agreeing that the changes in view would prove substantially an overthrow of the existing system, making the lower gymnasium for the most part a mere Latin school, and removing it from its position as preparatory to the higher, thus again burdening the latter, as the philosophical course had been before, with the whole weight of real instruction, to the certain deterioration of the classical studies. These views were emphatically sustained by other members of the press, and as at the convention of the philologists and schoolmen of Germany, held at Vienna in September, 1858, the weight of their authority was thrown in favor of the existing system and of the assimilation of the Austrian school system to that of Germany, it was continued in operation as before. The only important ordinance of the last year of Thun's ministry, (1859,) again removed from all but the State gymnasiums the prescription of German as the language of instruction in the higher classes.

With the new life that had now been infused into all the relations of the Empire, redoubled activity was shown in multiplying the number of gymnasiums, without aid to any great extent from the State treasury. The number of scholars increased from year to year in all the provinces, notwithstanding the strong feeling in favor of real schools, the increase from 1857 to 1860 being 25 per cent., while that of the population was but 3.3 per cent. The *Gymnasial Journal* labored on vigorously, and a second journal was established in the interests of the gymnasiums and real schools. The dissolution of the Ministry of Instruction in 1860 was accompanied by rumors of intended changes, which disappeared upon the appointment of Schmerling to the position that had been occupied by Thun. The first session of the representative branch of the government (August, 1861,) brought an unexpected assault from the extreme national party in a motion that the lower gymnasium be changed to a burgher school with class teachers, and a substitution, as far as possible, of the national language for the classical, while the upper gymnasium should be changed to a scientific lyceum, and the maturity examination be abolished. The futility of these changes was conclusively demonstrated by Hochegger and Bonitz, and no action was taken upon the motion by the *Reichsrath*. The extreme realistic and utilitarian views of the opposition have since

found expression again and again, but with the majority they have met with no sympathy, and when in the autumn of 1863 a strong effort was made for a closer approach of the gymnasium and real school, it was made evident to all that the existing system had become firmly established and was to be sustained—a result which can not fail to favor increased activity and advanced educational development.

## II.—PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE GYMNASIUMS.

*Essential Distinctions.*—The gymnasiums of Austria are *complete* or *incomplete*—the former having all the eight classes of the higher and lower gymnasiums; the latter only the four classes of the lower gymnasium, preparing for the higher gymnasium, but also having a certain degree of completeness and sufficiency in its own course. The number of complete gymnasiums is eighty—of incomplete, twenty-six. These are all “public” institutions, *i. e.* the certificates granted by them are recognized as legally valid. Such as are sustained exclusively or in a great part from the Educational Fund are known as “State” gymnasiums, and of these there are fifty-eight. Many belong to religious orders and receive nothing, or but small appropriations, from the State. Thus the Piarists have sixteen; the Benedictines, nine; the Franciscans, five; the Premonstratensians, three; the Jesuits, three; the Cistercians, two; the Augustinians, two; the Greek-Catholic Basilians, one; and the orthodox Greeks one. The title “Imperial Royal” is borne by nearly all. All also have a confessional character, 103 being Catholic, 1 Evangelical, and 2 orthodox Greek.

As respects the language employed in instruction, the rule prevails that the one with which the students are most familiar, and which is best suited to their general education, shall be employed. Until 1859 the German was prescribed except in the gymnasiums of Lombardy and Venice, but through the peculiar relations of the Hungarian provinces a change was then induced and this requirement is not adhered to in districts whose population is mostly other than German. The German is exclusively used in Upper and Lower Austria, Salzburg, Styria, Carinthia, Northern Tyrol, Vorarlberg, and Silesia, and at some gymnasiums in other provinces. Religious instruction may, however, be given in another language to the non-German students, during the whole or a part of the course. The gymnasiums of Lombardy and Venice, almost without exception, and some others, make exclusive use of Italian. In a few schools the classes are divided for distinct languages, and, in fact, much diversity exists in the manner in which the different languages are employed in different branches and different classes.

*Supervision and Administration.*—The State Ministry of Worship and Instruction has the supreme supervision over all the gymnasiums. It grants the right of bestowing certificates, permits the establishment of

new State gymnasiums, appoints the regular teachers and nominates the directors of State gymnasiums, and confirms the directors and teachers in other public institutions. It proposes all legislative measures for the action of the national council and decides in all educational matters relating to several provinces, and upon the more important questions gives regulations for single provinces or gymnasiums. It approves the course of study and rules of discipline of each institution, authorizes text-books, appoints boards for the examination of teachers, and has a voice in the appointment of the educational referees of the provinces. In all matters the State Ministry acts with the advice of the "Council of Education," whose gymnasial department consists of six members residing in Vienna, (three university professors, a director, and two gymnasial teachers,) to whom are made the reports of the gymnasial inspectors, of the examining boards, and of the Teachers' Seminaries, and who have the initiate in all matters relating to instruction.

Communication between the State Ministry and the gymnasiums is made through the provincial authorities, to whom are committed many matters of minor importance and from whom appeal may be made to the Ministry. The "Educational Referee" of the province is also referee for gymnasial affairs, and with him is associated the "Gymnasial Inspector," who regularly visits the gymnasiums of his province every year, investigating their condition and aiding their advancement so far as his authority permits. The ecclesiastical authorities have no concern in the administration of the gymnasiums beyond the right of the episcopal commissioner to be present at instruction and at the examinations, and to obtain all desired information from the director. The same is true of the committees appointed by the communities, who serve to make mutually known the wants and wishes of the gymnasiums and the communities in which they are located and to facilitate the cooperation of the gymnasium with private instruction. The immediate administration of the affairs of each gymnasium rests with its board of teachers.

*Grades and Duties of Teachers.*—The "board of teachers" at any gymnasium includes all engaged in instruction, both teachers and assistants. The "regular teachers" are those that have charge of the obligatory branches, while those engaged in the optional studies are designated as "associate teachers." The director is chosen from among the regular teachers and continues to take part in instruction, the remainder being in every respect equal in rank. Including the director there are at a complete gymnasium eleven regular teachers, and at a lower gymnasium, five—beside the catechist, who may also be employed in some of the obligatory branches. Where parallel classes exist, the number of teachers may be increased. All are employed as department teachers, but one is designated for each class by the director as "class teacher," or "ordinarius," to whose special guardianship the class and its interests are committed. He therefore holds occasional conferences with his colleagues upon the arrangement of the studies and upon the progress and behavior

of the students, reviews all the written exercises of his class, and is the representative of the students and their parents before the school authorities.

The director is the proper representative of the gymnasium, conducting its correspondence and primarily responsible for the prosperity of the institution, and hence obliged to become intimately familiar with all its exercises and concerns. He presides over the meetings of the teachers, which are held regularly each month and on other occasions as found necessary, and are attended by all the teachers and assistants of the obligatory branches—the latter voting only upon questions relating to their own pupils or subjects of instruction. The associate teachers also attend the meetings for determining the classification of the students and the preparation of the annual report. The director has the right, in pressing cases, of acting upon his own authority and contrary to the decision of the teachers, being responsible to the provincial authorities. He alone decides upon the branches to be taught by the several teachers, though their wishes are consulted and put upon record. A meeting of the teachers is also called by the gymnasial inspector at his annual visit, in pursuance of the duties of his office.

The number of regular teachers has increased from 737 in 1851 to 1,006 in 1863, and the associate teachers from 202 to 273—the assistants falling from 358 to 351. These changes were due chiefly to the establishment of new gymnasiums, the formation of parallel classes, the substitution of regular teachers for assistants, &c. Fifty-nine directors are ecclesiastics, but the appointment of such at gymnasiums not belonging to the religious orders has already become the exception. Two of the complete gymnasiums have three catechists each, and thirty-eight have two. Of the remaining regular teachers, 327 are ecclesiastics—of the assistant teachers, 123—and of the associate teachers, 22. Even the religious gymnasiums are often compelled to employ laymen as assistants, and much more frequently as associate teachers.

*Appointment of Teachers; Salaries and Pensions.*—The conditions requisite to the attainment of a teachership, are Austrian citizenship, the age of forty years, fitness for teaching in the proposed grade of office, and unimpeachable morals. The first two conditions may be in some cases dispensed with. Members of a religious order must have the consent of their superior, and relatives of a director within the third degree of consanguinity cannot be appointed to the same gymnasium. Regular teacherships at a religious gymnasium are filled by the superior of the order, and at other gymnasiums generally by the State Ministry after publication for applicants. The Ministry has also the confirmation of all other appointments, upon nomination through the provincial authorities. The catechists are appointed by the bishop, after examination. Assistant and associate teachers are appointed by the directors and confirmed by the provincial authorities. The appointments of all regular teachers are not made permanent until after three years of probationary service. The



directors belong to the eighth, the other teachers to the ninth grade of official rank.

The incomes of the regular teachers of the complete State gymnasiums consist—(1.) of the salary, as to which there are three grades of gymnasiums, with salaries of 1,050 fl., 945 fl., and 840 fl. respectively, diminished 105 fl. for that half of the teachers for the shortest time in service—(2.) of the decennial increase, amounting to 105 fl. for each ten years of service from the date of appointment—and (3.) of a share of the tuition fees, amounting since 1864 to fifteen per cent. of one third of the fees for the six oldest teachers, and ten per cent. to the seventh. At the Vienna gymnasiums the salaries are somewhat larger. At the lower gymnasiums there is but one grade of salary (735 fl.,) with a like decennial increase, and twenty-five per cent. of a third of the fees to each of the four oldest teachers. The directors at the higher gymnasiums receive 315 fl. in addition, and at the lower, 210 fl. At the State gymnasiums the average income of the directors, aside from the tuition fees, is 1,335 fl. (ranging from 945 fl. to 1,995 fl.)—of the regular teachers, 895 fl. Thirty-three of the directors and ninety of the teachers had in 1863 been fourteen years or more in service. Catechists giving other than religious instruction, or the entire religious instruction at a higher gymnasium, receive from 525 fl. to 840 fl., according to the grade of the school—at the lower gymnasiums, but 525 fl.—with the decennial increase. All instruction beyond the ordinary school hours is forbidden. At the religious gymnasiums the lay teachers are paid as at State gymnasiums of the third grade, the ecclesiastics having no claim to a fixed salary but usually receiving a regular remuneration from their superiors. Associate teachers are paid by their tuition fees, which are fixed by the director and teacher, ordinarily 10 fl. for each scholar.

Retiring teachers at the religious gymnasiums simply return to their former position in their order. Other regular teachers have in general the same right of pension with other officials, commencing at ten years of service with one-third of the salary, increased to one-half at twenty-five years, and to the whole salary after thirty years. Their widows and orphans have a pension of one-third of the salary, not to exceed 350 fl., which may be increased if there be more than three children. Other teachers are without pension.

*Branches of Instruction.*—The studies are divided into the strictly obligatory, the conditionally obligatory, and the optional. Those that are obligatory upon all students, without exception, are religion, Latin and Greek, the native language, geography and history, mathematics, natural history, physics, and the elements of philosophy—the latter alone being omitted in the lower gymnasiums. The conditionally obligatory are such as may be made absolutely obligatory upon any student at the will of his parents, such as the provincial languages, where others than the German are spoken. Other branches are wholly optional.

A "Plan of Study" is annually drawn up at each gymnasium and submitted to the approval of the State Ministry. There is much uniformity in these plans, the greatest variations occurring at gymnasia where German is not the native language of a majority of the students. In the "Plan of Organization" upon which the gymnasial system is based, the object that should be aimed at in each branch of instruction and the manner in which it should be pursued are detailed, as is very briefly indicated in the following sections.

*Latin.*—In the lower gymnasia an intimate acquaintance with Latin etymology and with the most necessary rules of syntax is secured, not so much by strictly conducted recitations and a memorizing of the rules, as by numerous, carefully prepared, written and oral exercises. In the first class, eight hours weekly are given to practice in the regular declensions, rules of gender, adjectives, the more important pronouns, cardinal and ordinal numbers, the regular conjugations, the use of the infinitive after certain verbs and adjective predicates, and of the subjunctive after certain conjunctions. With this is associated translation, both from and into Latin, and the memorizing of all the occurring Latin words. Afterwards a half-hour weekly is given to composition with close reference to the acquired grammar and vocabulary. In the second class an equal time is given to the remainder of the etymology and to the use of the accusative with the infinitive, and of the ablative absolute, with a like preparation and correction of written exercises. In the third and fourth classes, (six hours,) the syntax is limited to the most necessary rules, avoiding the more difficult details, the object being to assure perfect clearness of understanding and thoroughness in application. In the third class, four hours are given to reading "Historia Antiqua," and in the fourth, to Cæsar's *Bellum Gallicum* and selections from Ovid, with some instructions in prosody. The written exercises are always orally corrected in class, the teacher afterwards satisfying himself by inspection that the corrections have been understandingly made by the student.

In the higher gymnasium the course is continued by numerous written exercises, (one hour weekly,) aiming at accuracy in grammar and a familiarity with the peculiarities of Latin expression and the general principles of Latin style, increasing gradually in difficulty and made really beneficial by most scrupulous correction. In the fifth class, five hours are given to an equally careful reading of Livy and Ovid's *Metamorphoses*—in the sixth, the same time to Sallust, Cicero, Cæsar's *Bellum Civile*, and Virgil—in the seventh, four hours to Cicero, and the *Æneid*—and in the eighth, four hours to Tacitus and Horace.

*Greek.*—In the lower gymnasium there should be acquired a knowledge of the etymology of the Attic dialect and of the most essential rules of syntax, continued in the higher classes by the reading of the best classics, so far as the limited time given to the branch permits. The study is commenced in the third class and the method of the Latin course is pursued throughout. Students not intending to pursue their studies beyond

the lower gymnasium may be released from Greek during the third and fourth years, instead of which, in the Vienna gymnasium, thorough instruction in French is given. Four hours are devoted to Greek in the fourth and seventh classes, and five in the remainder. Xenophon is commenced in the fourth class, followed by the Iliad and Herodotus—in the seventh class, the Odyssey, Demosthenes' minor orations, and Sophocles—in the eighth, Plato and Sophocles.

*German.*—Ability to read, write, and speak the language correctly is the object aimed at in this instruction in the lower gymnasium—in the higher classes, readiness and correctness in the use of language for the expression of thought, a broader historical knowledge of the language and its literature, and an acquaintance with the characteristics of the principal styles of prose and poetry. Four hours are given to it in the first and second classes, two hours in the fifth, and three in the remainder. Commencing with a review of what has been learned of the simple sentence in the common school, further grammatical instruction is confined to the two lower classes and principally to the syntax of the compound sentence. Great care is taken, by means of well arranged dictation exercises, to secure a fixed orthography, and due attention is given to the spelling of foreign words. The reading books contain only pieces that are classical in style, serving also to illustrate the instruction that is given in other branches, and designed to have a favorable influence upon the character of the student. The exercises in this connection are reading, grammatical analysis, recitation of the contents of the pieces, and committing to memory the finer ones, with instruction in style and metrics. The written exercises (at least once in two weeks,) commence with a simple writing over of short tales and descriptions, chiefly geographical or from natural history, advancing gradually in the liberty of expression that is allowed in the reproduction. In the second and subsequent classes, the subjects are usually connected with the history lessons, and in the fourth class may include forms of business composition.

In the higher classes the written exercises are designed to promote increased dexterity and correctness in the use of language, and have close relation with the subject matter of instruction in the other branches, which are now of a character to excite deeper thought and to give clearness and a degree of originality to the ideas of the pupil. The instruction in history and the reading of the Greek and Roman classics and of German literature afford an abundance of material, while the previous study of the subjects of the compositions secures the requisite character of thought. Finally, readiness in oral discourse is cultivated in the eighth class by exercises in which two students engage in discussion upon a selected theme, followed by the criticisms of the class and the concluding judgment of the teacher. The history of the literature of the earlier and middle ages is, as taught, principally a history of the development of the language. No text-book is used aside from the readers. Of modern literature the students are left to gain a more thorough knowledge by their

private reading. An analytical treatment of the fundamental ideas of æsthetics forms an exercise of the higher class.

When German is not the prevalent language in a district, instruction in the native language is conducted in the same manner as above described with German. Where instruction is given in a provincial language not spoken by a majority of the students, it commences in the second class and is limited, in the lower gymnasiums, to fluency in reading and speaking, and in the higher classes to grammatical correctness and readiness in composition and an acquaintance with its literature. German is strictly obligatory upon all, even where it is not the language of instruction. A third language cannot be commenced, even as a conditionally obligatory branch, till the fifth class.

*Geography and History.*—Three hours a week throughout the course are given to instruction in these branches. After a full year spent in acquiring a correct idea of the physical characteristics of the earth's surface and its most important political divisions, geography for the rest of the course is taught in immediate connection with history, so that from the first, the relation of the earth to man and of the land to the people is made the prime consideration. In the three higher classes of the lower gymnasium, historical instruction includes a simple but animated description of the most important events and characters of ancient and modern times, impressing the more important names and dates by recitations and reviews—modern history being taught to the most advantage in association with the principal facts of Austrian history. In the upper gymnasium most stress is laid upon the causes and effects of events, the development of states and of their constitution and culture, giving special prominence to Greek and Roman history, and to the present condition of the Austrian Empire, its ethnography, State constitution and administration, physical resources, &c. The written exercises, already described, are of great service in their impressive and suggestive influence.

*Mathematics.*—Three hours a week are given to mathematics in the lower gymnasium. The arithmetical instruction is intended to suffice for the practical wants of those entering immediately into business and to prepare for the algebraical instruction of the higher classes. A full understanding of each operation is united with dexterity in its application and a knowledge of those relations in actual life to which the rule will apply. The elements of algebra in the third class serve to make the extraction of roots more easily understood and train the student to independent thought in the translation of given relations into the language of mathematical symbols. In all this instruction no text-book is employed. Systematic but not strictly demonstrative exercises upon the relations and properties of geometrical figures also tend to awaken the mathematical faculty, which at a later age is with more difficulty aroused to persistent action. In the higher gymnasium the chief object of algebraical instruction is a full comprehension of the relations of numbers and of arithmetical operations, with exercises in those more difficult. In geom-

etry (which includes trigonometry, analytical geometry, and conic sections,) there is sought to be obtained a readiness in the original demonstration and solution of propositions and problems based upon already known and understood principles. Four hours are given to this branch in the fifth class; three in the sixth and seventh; and one in the eighth.

*Natural History.*—Two hours a week are devoted to zoology in the first three semesters, to botany in the second semester of the second class, and to mineralogy in the third class. In zoological instruction, animals are classed in characteristic groups, and the students are made familiar with their distinctive differences, with the aid, so far as possible, of specimens and representations, while special attention is paid to their habits and relations to mankind. Botany is commenced with instruction in organography and terminology, training the students to recognize the individual organs in numerous distinct species and to describe them in correct terms, advancing without regard to systems from the easiest to the more difficult. In mineralogy the chief attention is given to those minerals which are most widely distributed, most useful, or most important in scientific respects. In the fifth and sixth classes of the higher gymnasium two hours are given to these branches, with a more thoroughly scientific treatment and with especial reference to the connection of mineralogy to geognosy, and of botany and zoology to paleontology, and to the geographical distribution of animals and plants and their relations to man.

*Physics.*—The aim of the instruction in physics in the lower gymnasium, (two hours in the third class and three in the fourth,) is a knowledge of the most important laws of nature, with their more easily understood applications in explanation of natural phenomena and in the arts. In the two highest classes, (for three hours weekly,) the same branches, including chemistry and the elements of astronomy, are treated in a more thoroughly scientific manner, and with the aid of elementary mathematics where applicable.

*Elements of Philosophy.*—This instruction includes those laws of formal logic that are recognized in all philosophical systems, (long previously unconsciously followed by the student in his study of other branches,) and empirical psychology with copious reference to the student's acquirements in history and literature and as a fertile inducement to wider thought. Any further extension of this introduction to philosophy, from the difficulty of limiting the subject and of avoiding a preference for some philosophical system, has been attempted at but few institutions. Two hours in the seventh and eighth classes are given to this branch.

*Religion.*—Religious instruction is given throughout the course, two hours weekly, with an additional hour in the eighth class. It commences with committing the catechism to memory, followed in the second class by explanations of the catholic liturgy, and in the third and fourth classes by biblical history. Instruction is then given in the grounds of Christian faith, to which succeed, in the two highest classes, a system of general

ethics and Church history. On the part of students of other sects, both Christian and Jewish, similar instruction is required, which should be given, as far as possible, within the gymnasium. All are required to attend divine service and the religious exercises of their sect, for which purpose Jewish students are excused from school duties upon their feast days.

*Optional Branches.*—These include penmanship, music, drawing, the modern languages, stenography, and gymnastics. Ornamental penmanship receives the most general attention, all the members of the two lowest classes, in which there are two hours less of weekly obligatory study, taking part in it. So also, scarcely any gymnasium is without instruction in singing, all the students, except those that have no faculty whatever for music, being divided into two sections for boys' and mens' voices, and receiving two hours instruction each week. Instrumental music is taught only at five institutions. Stenography is often taken up in the higher classes. Of the modern languages, French is the most common, English being taught in but nine schools, but Italian in most of the gymnasiums of Lower Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola. Gymnastics are being gradually introduced, but are still wholly wanting in Galicia, Dalmatia, and Lombardy and Venice.

*Text-books, Apparatus and Libraries.*—Each board of teachers is permitted to select its text-books from the catalogue of those that have been approved by the State Ministry, and a teacher is seldom restricted from using in his own classes text-books of his own composition, of which books there is a very considerable number. In the modern languages and other optional branches, the selection of books is left to the individual teachers, under the supervision of the director. Special attention has of late years been given to providing apparatus, natural history collections, &c., as aids in instruction, and all gymnasiums are required to be supplied with wall maps, globes, atlases, and similar forms of apparatus. Libraries for both teachers and students have also been established in all the gymnasiums.

*Terms and Vacations.*—The school year continues from the 1st of October to the 31st of July—commencing and ending in Galicia and Bukovina a month earlier, in the Littorale and in Lombardy and Venice a month later. Five days vacation are given between the semesters, and the directors can excuse from attendance upon four other days. Thursdays, or two afternoons in each week, are also free. In some of the city gymnasiums it has become customary to give all the instruction in the obligatory branches in the forenoon.

*Requirements for admission.*—Candidates for admission must be at least nine years of age and have a legal certificate of having passed through the studies of the fourth high school class and the preceding gymnastical studies. An examination is required before admission to the first class, but otherwise only when the candidate has not previously belonged to a public gymnasium. When there are many candidates found unprepared for admission to the first class, a preparatory class may be formed, either



temporarily or permanently, in which the instruction is limited to language and arithmetic, the scholars receiving instruction in religion, geography, and natural history as transient students (*Hospitanten*) of the first class. The number of students in a class should not exceed fifty, this limit being maintained by dismissal to other gymnasiums or by the formation of parallel classes. But the establishment of the latter is not imperative, and is not permitted at the State gymnasiums if great difficulty attends the procurement of rooms and teachers. Still where the attendance at the lower gymnasium makes a division of its classes a permanent necessity, an increase of teacherships is allowed even at the latter institutions. If this excess extends to the higher classes, the establishment of a new gymnasium is preferable.

*Tuition Fees.*—An admission fee of 2 fl. 10 kr. is required at the State gymnasiums and may be imposed at the others. The tuition fees at most of the State gymnasiums amount to 12 fl. 60 kr., paid semi-annually in advance, varying to some extent at other schools. All members of the two higher classes who belong to a religious order are exempt from these fees, and other needy students are exempted upon gaining a first-grade certificate and the highest credits for morals, attention and diligence. The number thus gratuitously instructed amounted in 1853 to thirty-three per cent. and had increased in 1863 to forty-two per cent. of the whole number of students. This exemption in most cases continues through the course, unless forfeited by an unfavorable report in morals, a third-grade certificate, or a second-grade certificate for two semesters in succession.

*Discipline.*—To aid in maintaining order there is in each room a "class-book" for the record by each teacher of the absences, tardiness, and moral behavior of the students during his hours of instruction. The usual punishments are retention in school under the charge of a teacher for the study of neglected lessons, private or public reprimand by the teacher or director, imprisonment for eight hours or less, (but not at night,) and expulsion from the gymnasium, from all intermediate schools of the Empire, or from all educational institutions of every kind. The first grade of expulsion must be with the approval of the provincial authorities, the latter with that of the State Ministry. The visiting of inns and coffee houses can only be occasional, and play there is wholly forbidden. Other restrictions may be imposed by the board of teachers. School mass and school prayers are regularly held, with exhortations upon Sundays and feast days, and a due observance of Passion week. The Holy Sacrament is usually administered five times a year.

*Examinations and Gradations.*—A gradation of the students is made at the end of each semester. The notes of the individual teachers in each study are compared by the teachers of the class, unitedly, and a judgment is passed upon the morals, attention, and diligence of each student, upon which the board of teachers bases the "general certificate" classification, showing the eminent or simple fitness of the student for the

next higher course of study, or his relative or absolute unfitness. A stricter gradation into three classes is also made, with a more careful weighing of all the influencing circumstances. At the close of the year, for the purpose of promotion, a written examination is held in the languages, history, and mathematics, under the charge of the director and teachers of the respective branches in the next higher class, supplemented by an oral examination if necessary to a satisfactory decision. Failure in a single branch prevents promotion, unless for special reasons a second examination be granted at the close of vacation. The classification is published in the "Hauptkatalog," and with the report of the board of teachers is forwarded to the provincial authorities. This examination may be followed by exhibition exercises and a distribution of prizes, and at the same time the annual report, or "programme," is published, containing a scientific or pedagogical essay, the plan of study and statistics of the gymnasium, &c. A regular exchange of programmes is made between all the gymnasiums of Austria, one hundred and seventy in Prussia, and thirty in Bavaria.

The "maturity examination" forms the keystone of the whole course of gymnasial study, without which no student can be matriculated in any department of an Austrian university, nor claim the legal advantages resulting from attendance at a foreign institution. Two months before the close of the school year, those who desire it report themselves in writing, through their parents, to the class-teacher of the highest class, and the board of teachers can dissuade but cannot exclude from the examination any thus presenting themselves. The gymnasial inspector fixes the time and appoints the subjects for the written examination, which consists of a composition in the native language, (for which five hours are given,) a translation from Latin, (two hours,) and from Greek, (three hours,) a translation into Latin, (three hours,) a mathematical exercise, (four hours,) and also an exercise in a second provincial language, if its study has been obligatory upon any student. The decision upon this examination is made by the teachers of the class. The oral examination is conducted by the inspector, or his deputy, and embraces all the branches of the higher class, excepting philosophy and in some cases the language of instruction. The object of both examinations is a determination of the degree of mental maturity acquired by the student, and the final decision is given by the inspector, the director, and the examining teachers conjointly upon the degree of fitness or unfitness for admission to the University. The consequent certificate details the studies and moral conduct of the student during the gymnasial course and his standing in each study. Candidates found unfitted are rejected for a half or whole year.

*Private Instruction.*—Private students may be enrolled at any gymnasium as "privatisten," under the same conditions as govern the admission of regular students, receiving no instruction but required to be present at all examinations and treated at the maturity examination in every way like the public students. Students not thus enrolled, are called

"private students" in a stricter sense. They can enter the gymnasial classes at any time by undergoing an examination, but cannot be admitted to the maturity examination before the age of eighteen years. No one can open a private gymnasium but a citizen of Austria, of unspotted moral and political character, and possessing the qualifications for gymnasial teachership. The institution must be organized essentially in accordance with the State system and its teachers be approved by an examining board. The privilege may be granted to any well tested institution to rank its students as "privatisten" at a public gymnasium, and such as have long proven their efficiency may be themselves raised to the position of public gymnasiums.

*Training and Examination of Teachers.*—The two institutions at Vienna for the training of gymnasial teachers, the "Philological and Historical Seminary" and the "Physical Institute," are both attached to the philosophical department of the Vienna University and are conducted by its professors. The exercises at the Seminary consist of written exercises in classical philology, oral translations and explanations of Greek and Latin authors, essays and disputations upon historical and other themes, and colloquies with the instructor. Instruction is gratuitous and open to all members of the philosophical department of the university. After a half-year's attendance upon the exercises, students may become regular members of the philological or historical department of the Seminary, or of both, obligating themselves to a two years' attendance upon the exercises of their division. Students are admitted to the Physical Institute who have heard mathematical and physical lectures for at least a year at a university or technical institute. The number is limited to twelve, six of whom receive stipends, and the course continues through three semesters. After a course of practice in the experiments required in physical instruction in the gymnasium, they are engaged in independent scientific investigations, for which they have the aid of the university library and observatory. The material and apparatus required for their use is furnished gratuitously. The organization of the Philological and Historical Seminaries at Gratz, Innsbruck, Prague, and Lemberg is similar.

Candidates for a teachership must present themselves to an examining board with satisfactory evidence of having completed the three years' university course. For the purpose of examination the studies of the gymnasium are divided into five groups; viz.—(1.) The entire course of classical study—(2.) of geography and history—(3.) of mathematics and physics, or natural history for the whole course with mathematics and physics for the lower gymnasium—(4.) elements of philosophy, with one of the first three groups for the lower gymnasium—and (5.) the German language, with one classical language for the entire course and the other for the lower gymnasium, with or without a provincial language. Catechists should pass an examination in the first three groups for the lower gymnasium only, or in the elements of philosophy, in German, or in a provincial language. The requirements in the several groups are—(1.) a thor-

ough reading of the classics used in the gymnasiums and knowledge of Greek and Roman history, and requisite familiarity with classical philology—(2.) a familiarity with the pragmatism of events, a scientific knowledge of geography, and thorough acquaintance with the geography and history of the ancients and of Austria—(3.) a ready familiarity with elementary mathematics, practice in analytical geometry, and acquaintance with the calculus, a knowledge of the principles of physics, of chemistry, astronomy and mathematical geography, of the principal systems of natural history, of geology, and of the anatomy and physiology of animals and plants—(4.) the study of philosophical works and of the history of philosophy—and (5.) a knowledge of the history and literature of the language in question, in connection with political history, an acquaintance with the older authors and familiarity with the classical works in the language.

The examination requires two exercises upon the special subject of examination, with a third having a didactic purport, for the preparation of which, twelve weeks are given; an additional exercise in each branch, to be completed in twelve hours; an oral examination as a test of correctness in the use of the language of instruction and of German; and, finally, a trial year spent in actual instruction. The certificate of the board contains, in detail, the result of the examination and their opinion of the candidate. The trial year is spent at a public gymnasium selected by the provincial authorities, where he has charge of two classes, usually for six hours in the week, under the supervision of the director and class ordinarius. If his incapacity is evident he may be immediately removed; otherwise he receives a certificate from the board of teachers. If the candidate be not appointed to a position within three years thereafter, he is required to obtain a renewal of his certificate from a board of examiners, with or without a second examination.

*Educational Funds and Expense of the Gymnasiums.*—The "Educational Fund" is in reality composed of the several provincial funds concentrated at Vienna, and is designed not only for the benefit of the gymnasiums, but for the real schools and especially the universities. These funds suffered much during the first fifteen years of the century from the financial necessities of the government, which compelled in after years appropriations from the State treasury and the setting apart of certain revenues for the supply of the deficiencies of the fund. The income of the fund in 1864 amounted to 1,071,021 fl., of which 256,026 fl. belonged to Bohemia, 233,202 fl. to Lower Austria, 126,240 fl. to Moravia, and 104,979 fl. to Galicia. Of the whole amount, 624,165 fl. were derived from invested capital, 227,310 fl. from tuition fees at the gymnasiums, real schools, and universities, and the remainder from various other sources.

The expenses of a complete gymnasium may be estimated to average 17-18,000 fl., and of a lower gymnasium, 9-10,000 fl., and the appropriations of the State to both classes must be about 900,000 fl. Adding to this the grants made to other than State gymnasiums, and not taking into

consideration the expenses of inspection and administration, there can be no doubt that nearly the whole of the above income is absorbed upon these institutions, and that the expenses of the real schools and universities fall almost wholly as a tax upon the State treasury. Considering that the gymnasiums of the religious orders are sustained at a somewhat less expense (6-12,000 fl.), it may be approximately estimated that about 1,400,000 fl. are annually expended in all the non-Hungarian provinces of the Empire for the support of gymnasial instruction.

### III.—RESULTS OF THE PRESENT SYSTEM.

While, as has been seen, the development of gymnasial instruction in Austria equals, in many respects, that in most of the States of Germany, there is still room for a large increase in the number of intermediate schools, both of the higher and lower grades. Nowhere is their usefulness, as yet certainly, limited by their redundancy. In the Tyrol, where they are relatively most abundant, there is still but one gymnasial student to 414 inhabitants; but one to 469 in Moravia and Silesia; to 563 in Carinthia and Carniola; to 615 in Lower Austria and the Littorale; to 675 in Bohemia and Upper Austria; to 800 in Dalmatia, Galicia, Bukowina, and Styria; to 875 in Lombardy and Venice; and to 2,500 in the Frontier—while as respects nationality, there is but one student to 345 Jews, 587 Germans, 670 Poles, Szechish Moravians, and Slovenes, 778 Italians, and 12-1800 Wallachs, Ruthenes, Croats, and Servians. The increase of attendance, however, especially since 1858, has been very large, amounting since 1851 to from thirty to seventy-five per cent., (excepting the Tyrol, Dalmatia, and Lombardy and Venice, where the increase was much less,) and as an evident refutation of the asserted Germanizing tendency of the system, this increase has been in most cases much the greatest among the non-German races. There has been at the same time a constant diminution in the number of private scholars, showing an increased confidence in the newly organized gymnasiums on the part of the higher and more opulent classes. Indeed more than two-fifths of the "privatisten" are found in the kingdom of Lombardy and Venice, and half of the remainder in the five chief cities of German Austria. This last fact is chiefly due to the already overcrowded condition of the lower classes. This overcrowding of the classes, necessarily resulting from the rapidly increased attendance, is far too general for the good of the institutions, about two-fifths of the lower classes exceeding, and sometimes very largely, the legal maximum of fifty in a room. The same occurs, but to a less extent, in the upper classes.

The number of assistants has since 1856 averaged one-third that of the regular teachers, and the disproportion is increasing rather than diminishing. The information respecting the efficiency of the examining boards is incomplete, but it would appear that from 1851 to 1863, there were 1,123 teachers examined and approved. In 1863, of the 297 regular teachers at the gymnasiums of the religious orders, but forty-eight of the

126 located since 1850 had been examined—on the other hand, of the 570 at the other gymnasiums, but twenty-seven out of 442 had not been examined. Great disadvantages and discouragement doubtless result not only from the withholding the right of pension from the teachers of the religious gymnasiums, but also from the precarious pecuniary circumstances of the teachers, as a class, at all the gymnasiums. It was shown by Bonitz in 1861 that within the preceding ten years the incomes of the teachers had fallen off, while the demand for preparatory training and efficiency had greatly advanced, and at the same time the necessary expenses of living were considerably greater—the cost of house-rent, board and fuel for a married couple without children being estimated at not much less than 900 fl. in Vienna, 700 fl. in Prague, and 600 fl. in other cities, and not much less for an unmarried person. On entering service the condition of the teacher compares not unfavorably with that of other State officials of like grade, but the comparison becomes constantly less favorable, the increase of income affording small compensation for the elsewhere existing chance of promotion.

The efficiency of many institutions is greatly impaired by the want of suitable provision for libraries and other collections. Forty-one gymnasiums have libraries for the teachers of over 2,000 and averaging 3,500 volumes each, while there are others with but a hundred volumes, or even less, and of the students' libraries there are but twenty-two that average over 2,000 volumes and in many gymnasiums they are wholly wanting. The deficiency is made up, however, in some cases by access to the libraries of other institutions. The natural history cabinets are mostly of very recent establishment and have been greatly aided by the Zoological and Botanical Society of Vienna. Fourteen gymnasiums have collections of vertebrate animals averaging 400 specimens, twelve have collections of invertebrates that average 6,500 specimens, and twenty-three have herbariums that average 4,000 specimens. The mineralogical cabinets, of which fifty-seven average over 2,000 specimens, are in general the best arranged. In the larger cities use is made of the various museums, but the backwardness of instruction at many schools is due to the want of all means of illustration. The apparatus for instruction in physics, geometry, geography, &c., is also too often greatly deficient.

The amount of stipends paid in 1863 was 206,373 fl., of which 56,298 fl. belonged to the gymnasiums of Bohemia, 31,351 fl. to Lower Austria, and 25,659 fl. to Galicia—the amount of each stipend averaging about 100 fl. Since the abolition of the stipends derived from the tuition fees, the need of State appropriations to supply the deficiencies of private endowments has been more apparent. Some assistance is derived from aid societies, collections, concerts, &c., but many students are compelled to gain a portion of their support by the private instruction of pupils of the lower classes or in the common schools.



Upon a comparison of the ages of the students at the close of the first year at all the gymnasiums with those in the highest class, it is found that the course of study is actually completed within the prescribed eight years. The exceptions occur chiefly in the polyglot provinces, where the instruction of the common school is the most deficient. Were admission deferred from the beginning to the close of the tenth year, many of the difficulties in the way of instruction would be removed, as much of the over-burdening complained of in the lowest class is due to the defective preparation of the entering scholars. The course of study, notwithstanding the complaints at first made against it, has already gained general approval. Some changes might be advantageously made in regard to geography and history, as well as natural history and philosophy, and the need is also felt of placing drawing among the obligatory branches of the lower gymnasium. In the optional branches—in singing and gymnastics especially—it is desirable that tuition fees were done away with. A partial criterion of the efficiency of instruction may be found in the results of the annual classification, at which the percentage of those found fitted for promotion was in 1858 and in the seven preceding years about seventy-six per cent., and has since increased to eighty-four per cent. Yet there has been a gradual diminution in the number of students that have attained the certificate of the first grade, for preeminent scholarship, from one-fifth in 1851 to one-seventh in 1863. In close conformity with the results of this classification is the relative number of scholars in the several classes, the larger decrease from the fourth to the fifth and from the fifth to the sixth classes being due to the withdrawal of many pupils at the close of the gymnasial course, or at least after a single year in the higher gymnasium. At the close of the course about one-seventh leave without undergoing the maturity examination, of whom two-thirds engage in theological study. Of those examined, ninety-two per cent. succeed at once, two-fifths of the remainder being rejected for six months—the rest, with an occasional exception, passing at the end of a year. Nearly one-fifth receive the highest grade of certificate. The standing of the "privatisten" at the examination is found notably inferior to that of the gymnasial students. Of those that have passed the maturity examination the statistics of many years show that with great uniformity forty-one per cent. engage in the study of theology, thirty-seven in law and political economy, thirteen in medical, and seven per cent. in philosophical study.

But slight changes can be pointed out as desirable in the method of administration, prominent among which would be the restoration of the provincial school authorities in the form that existed from 1850 to 1854.

## III. REAL SCHOOLS IN AUSTRIA.

1. *History.*

Soon after the idea of the real schools had taken root in Germany, the Moravian Bureau of Trade and Manufactures projected the establishment of a "Mechanics' School" and in 1751 approved a plan drawn up for it by Rabstein, but the want of suitable teachers and books and the breaking out of the seven-years war, prevented its going into operation. Empress Maria Theresa had already in 1745 organized the first university lectures upon experimental physics and in 1757 those upon mechanics, had in 1763 permitted instruction in book-keeping to be given at the Piarist schools, and even established several schools for apprentices. Wolf soon afterwards came from Baden to Vienna and laid before the Empress the plan of a real institute, to include a real academy, real school, and an apprentices' school, and after a trial course in 1770 he was charged with the establishment of the "Real Commercial Academy," the purpose of which was "to afford to young men, who intend to devote themselves to commercial pursuits, a fundamental knowledge of all that distinguishes a skillful commercial man from a shopkeeper." The course was biennial and included writing and arithmetic, German, French, and Italian, general and commercial geography, the essentials of geometry, mechanics, physics, logic, morals, philosophical and positive jurisprudence, commercial and maritime law, book-keeping and drawing. The number of pupils was limited to sixty and the instruction was made exclusively practical. But the prohibitive system of Joseph II., (1784,) exerted a paralyzing influence upon foreign commerce, while domestic trade was left undeveloped, and thus the greatest incentives were wanting for self-improvement in the field for which the Academy was designed. While its definite purpose was to give a special commercial training, it became the aim of the fourth classes of the high schools, to which the Emperor was far more favorably disposed, to give to some extent a more extended general education to those not designing to pursue a course of gymnasial study.

Still the whole subject of real instruction met with comparative neglect until after the death of Joseph and the appointment of the commission for educational reform in 1795, whose attention was urgently called to it by Rottenhann. Less concerned for common schools and gymnasiums, yet as a large manufacturer of Bohemia he took an active interest in promoting education for commercial and trade purposes and became the creator of the first truly real school of Austria. Under his direction a detailed plan of study was drawn up by Gertsner, and was finally reported by him in 1799 as the basis of what should be "an entirely novel institution," taking the place for the business classes of the gymnasial and philosophical courses. After long delay the "Plan for the organization and administration of the entire German school system" appeared in 1804,

which recognized the real school, indeed, but only as a branch of the common schools and under the same administration. The general plan of Rottenhann was followed with some restriction of the subjects and reduction of the course to three years. The studies proposed as obligatory were religion, (seven hours weekly,) German, French, geography, and arithmetic, (each nine hours,) history and mechanics, (two hours,) elementary geometry, (five hours,) natural history and physics, and calligraphy, (seven hours,) and drawing, (six hours,)—and as obligatory at the pleasure of the parent, book-keeping, agriculture, mathematics and drawing for artists and artisans, and Italian, (five hours each,) commercial science, with the laws of exchange and a knowledge of commodities, physics, and chemistry, (four hours,) and agricultural drawing, (three hours.)

It was not until 1809 that the Commercial Academy was remodeled upon this plan as the first Austrian real school. Two years later the instruction relative to agriculture and art was omitted. As it was required for admission that the pupil should have completed both years of the fourth class at the high school, the latter became in fact a lower real school, giving preparatory instruction in the principal branches of the real school course. After the model of the Vienna school, institutions were founded at Brünn in 1811, at Brody in 1815, and at Lemberg in 1817, and the lower department of the naval school at Trieste was organized in the same year as a real school, independent of the common school authorities, as was now also that at Vienna, having been united to the Polytechnic Institute. But the spirit of political isolation that prevailed in the government and the restrictions almost prohibitory that were laid upon commerce, hindered the growth of these institutions, so that even in 1829 the three schools at Brünn, Brody and Lemberg numbered but little over two hundred pupils. The rapid progress that now commenced in the industry of Austria awakened a new interest in real schools, and Bohemia, which surpassed all the other provinces in the rapid development of its manufactures and trade, took the lead by establishing a real school at Prague, in 1833, in connection with the polytechnic institute, followed by one at Rakonitz in 1834, and at Reichenberg in 1837. Like schools were also organized by Styria at Gratz in 1841, and at Milan and Venice. At the same time the number of fourth classes at the high-schools was continually increasing and many private institutions of a special technical or commercial character were opened. In 1844 a revision of the real school plan had been resolved upon, which was interrupted by the revolution of 1848.

The new Ministry of Instruction found themselves less prepared for an immediate reorganization of the real schools than of the gymnasium. Feuchtersleben proposed that there should be in every city a lower real or burgher school of three classes, formed from the fourth high school classes, in which all the branches of the common school should be continued and at the same time special instruction be given preparatory for the

lower circle of city and country business. There should also be in each province at least one three-class real school, in which the general branches of the lower school should be carried still farther and special preparation be also given for higher technical studies. Exner more fully developed Feuchtersleben's ideas and adopted the real schools into his "Plan of Organization" of 1849, not as special schools for mathematics and natural science, but as institutions for a more general education, of which modern language and literature were to be the basis. He divided the school into upper and lower departments, each having three classes, which in the lower or burgher school should also be supplemented by a year's course of practical instruction for those designing to engage immediately in business. There could also exist incomplete burgher schools of two classes, and these, if supplemented by a year of practical instruction, could be established as independent schools. The reorganization of the schools according to these principles commenced in 1850, the two years' course in the fourth high school classes was altered to conform to the two lower classes of the burgher school, either complete or incomplete, and the already existing schools began to be changed to complete real schools. The first new school of the kind was established at Prague, with Czechish as the language of instruction.

But so much doubt existed respecting the possibility of fixing upon the real school the character of an institution for general culture, that a commission was appointed to advise upon the subject, upon whose motion the "Statute" of 1851 was decreed. This statute restored the schools as institutions for special instruction preparatory in part for higher technical studies and in part for certain branches of trade, and made corresponding changes in the course of study. The incomplete two-class burgher schools, formed from the fourth high school classes, still retained their connection with the common school. In 1853 followed regulations for the examination of teachers, and all the relations of the schools were made, with slight modifications, similar to those of the gymnasiums. Through the encouragement and aid rendered by the Emperor, and through the generous contributions and active interest of the communes, the schools were increased between 1851 and 1857 from fourteen institutions with 2,987 pupils to seventeen complete and eight lower real schools with 7,292 pupils. Besides these there were also established special schools of various kinds in connection with them, such as evening and Sunday schools for apprentices, commercial departments, schools for seamen, &c. Only one complete and one lower real school have been since founded by the State, but the communes have exerted themselves with redoubled zeal as the necessity for the higher education of the producing provinces has become more evident, adding seven complete and six lower real schools and increasing the number of scholars by one-fourth. The real school has met, indeed, with little of the opposition that has been experienced by the gymnasium.

A journal had now been established as the organ of the real schools, which immediately opened a vigorous discussion of the question of reform. The establishment of numerous trade and commercial schools had diminished the necessity for making the real school a substitute for such institutions, and the need on the other hand of supplying a means of higher education to the active, producing burgher class and of thus bridging over the chasm that separated them from the classically educated, became constantly more evident and pressing. A closer approach to the gymnasium in grade and organization became the watchword, and as numerous new real schools were projected in 1863 the reform of the plan of study was the more earnestly considered. Tabor and Chrudim took the lead in the endowment of "real gymnasiums," followed by Vienna, Baden, and St. Pölten. No legislative action, however, has been taken, though the Educational Council have expressed an opinion favorable to the prevalent tendency of development, and corresponding changes in the organization of the schools will doubtless soon follow.

## 2. *Present Organization and Condition of the Real Schools.*

*Classification of the Schools.*—According as the object is simply to give a comparatively complete but still intermediate degree of instruction preparatory to business pursuits, or a more extended course preparatory for the higher technical institutions, the real schools are divided into the lower three-class real school and the complete real school with three additional higher classes. In 1863 there were in Austria twenty-four complete and sixteen lower real schools. Though located chiefly at the capitals or larger cities, the attendance is never local but drawn from all parts of the provinces. All are "public" institutions, *i. e.* their certificates have full validity throughout the empire, and the larger number (23) are supported wholly or to a great extent by the State and are designated as "imperial royal" institutions. Fourteen are communal schools; two are sustained by endowments; that at Gratz is supported by the province of Styria; and one at Vienna is a private school, organized according to the regulations of the Statute and provided with examined teachers. None are in the hands of the religious orders and the sectarian character is limited to the supervision of the instruction by the bishops and the appointment of none but catholics as directors or regular teachers.

As at the gymnasium, that language is to be used in instruction with which the scholars are most conversant. Still the German is predominant, both because the majority of the schools are located in the German provinces and because in other provinces German is the more or less prevalent language of the business classes. In thirty-one schools it is almost exclusively used; four are Czechish, one Polish, and five Italian. Like the gymnasiums, the real schools are administered by the Ministry of Worship and Instruction, through the provincial authorities. Lower Austria alone has as yet a real school inspector, the duties of the office being performed in Moravia and Silesia by the gymnasial inspector and

in the other provinces by the common school inspector. The Educational Council, attached to the Ministry of Instruction, has a section for "higher technical institutions, real and special schools," with a single real school teacher among its members.

*Teachers.*—The grade and relations of the teachers, their appointment and privileges, are essentially the same as at the gymnasiums. The complete real schools should have twelve, and the lower seven regular teachers. The total number has increased from fifty-two regular teachers, (including directors and catechists,) twenty-one assistant and sixteen associate teachers in 1851, to 386 regular, 146 assistant, and 114 associate teachers in 1864, of whom but twenty-nine, besides the catechists, were ecclesiastics and only fifteen belonged to the religious orders. Each regular teacher is obligated to from eighteen to twenty hours of instruction per week—the directors, from ten to fourteen. At the State real schools the income of the regular teachers includes a salary of 630 fl. at the lower schools (840 fl. in Vienna,) and at the complete schools of 630 fl. or 840 fl. according to the relative length of service, (1,050 fl. and 1,260 fl. in Vienna,) with a decennial increase of 210 fl. The director receives 315 fl. in addition. The catechist, if only engaged in religious instruction, has a fixed salary of 630 fl., (840 fl. in Vienna.) In 1863 the average salary of the directors in the State schools was 1,068 fl., and of the 160 regular teachers, 838 fl., (ranging from 525 fl. to 1,680 fl.) At the several communal schools the incomes vary greatly, averaging 995 fl. for the directors, and 817 fl. for the remaining regular teachers.

*Studies.*—The distribution of the prescribed branches of study through the course varies to a considerable extent in the several schools, few even of the State institutions following exactly the same arrangement. The principles that should be essentially followed were laid down in the Plan of Organization of 1849, the Statute, and the supplementary instructions of the Ministry to the directors, and the course of instruction recommended may be concisely given as follows.

*Religion.*—This includes instruction in the several classes, two hours each week, in the catechism, the liturgy, biblical history, doctrinal religion, Christian morals, and church history.

*German, or other Language used in instruction.*—Four hours in the two lower classes and five in the remainder, given in the lower department to the study of etymology and syntax, exercises in orthography, the repeating of pieces from memory, and written exercises, with the purpose of assuring a correct and ready use, both in speaking and writing, of the language as employed in ordinary life. Instruction is also given in business composition in its various forms. In the upper classes it is the aim to improve the taste and enlarge the circle of thought of the student by instruction in the elements of rhetoric, rhetorical and logical analysis, reading the most prominent authors in the language, translations, and study of the history of the modern literature especially. Where a second provincial language is made obligatory a like course is to be pursued as



far as possible, three or four hours being given to it in the two lower classes, and two or three in the rest.

*Geography and History.*—Three hours in the lower and four in the higher classes. Especial attention is here given to the relations of geography to trade and commerce, and to the historical development, present condition, and commercial relations of Austria and of the native province.

*Mathematics.*—Four hours are given in the two lower classes to arithmetic and the simpler elements of algebra, and three hours in the third class to mercantile arithmetic and book-keeping and the principles of exchange and custom duties. Higher algebra, geometry and trigonometry receive nine hours in the fourth, five in the fifth, and two in the sixth class, while descriptive geometry and its application in machinery occupies two hours in the fourth and four in the higher classes.

*Natural History.*—Two hours in the first three semesters of the lower school and in each of the upper classes are given to zoology, botany and mineralogy in succession, with special reference to such objects as are most frequently met with and of the greatest importance in commerce and the arts, and with a more scientific treatment in the upper classes.

*Physics.*—Two hours in the first, second and fifth classes, and four in the sixth, with instruction in the most important physical laws and their application in the explanation of natural phenomena and in technical operations.

*Chemistry.*—In the third class (six hours) the instruction extends so far as to explain the principles of its most important applications in the arts, and in the higher classes (two hours) the student is enabled to read chemical works understandingly and to conduct chemical analyses. Organic chemistry is included, and prominence is given throughout to such applications of chemistry as are of especial importance in the respective provinces.

*Drawing.*—In this prominent branch ten hours are devoted in the two lower classes to geometrical drawing and the relations and laws of geometrical figures, followed in the remaining classes (six hours) by free hand drawing after copies, models, and even from memory, with perspective and the rules of projection and shade, extending to architectural ornamentation and technical designs and, in linear drawing, to plans of machinery and of buildings. In the highest class the instruction is somewhat adapted to the future wants of the several scholars, and modeling may take its place.

*Architecture and Machinery.*—Four hours are given in the third class to instruction in regard to building materials and the planning of buildings, and two hours in the sixth to the principal motive powers and forms of machinery, their uses, and the advantages and defects of each.

*Calligraphy.*—Two hours in the four lower classes to German and English running hand and ornamental penmanship.

*Practical Course.*—The additional year of practical instruction for students who desire farther training without entering the higher department occurs only at the schools at Gumpendorf, Prague, and Pisek. In this

course, technology, both mechanical and chemical, is a prominent branch, to which is closely allied a knowledge of commodities, whether raw or manufactured. It also includes mercantile arithmetic and book-keeping in all its branches, business composition and forms, the science of commerce, commercial law and the law of exchange, commercial geography, and drawing.

*Optional Branches.*—Of these the modern languages are most prominent; French is taught at twenty-five schools, Italian at twenty, and English at seven. Latin has also of late been admitted into the lower classes. Exercises in singing, in which most of the students participate, are held at thirty of the schools and gymnastics have been introduced at nineteen—dancing and instrumental music, each in but a single school. Stenography is taught to pupils of the higher classes in fifteen schools. Instruction in these branches is in some institutions wholly gratuitous—in others the fees vary widely.

*Classification and other School Regulations.*—The same or similar regulations are in force at the real schools as at the gymnasiums in respect to text-books, libraries, cabinets, apparatus, and other means of instruction, the conditions for admission, admission and tuition fees, vacations, and modes of discipline. The tuition fees at the State institutions vary from ten to twenty florins in each class, and yet more at the other schools. A like semi-annual classification as at the gymnasiums is made of the students according to the notes of the teachers upon their morals, attention, diligence, and progress, and at the close of the year an oral and written examination is made of their fitness for promotion. In drawing all the exercises of the year are taken into account and linear drawing, from its close connection with geometry, has equal weight with other branches. Failure in any single branch necessitates loss of promotion only at the pleasure of the board of teachers. No maturity examination is required. Closing festivities and an annual programme are customary. The admission and examination of private pupils are provided for as at the gymnasiums, and there are several private schools at Vienna and Prague whose pupils are enrolled at the public schools and presented there for examination.

*Examination of Teachers.*—Candidates for a regular teachership must have a gymnasial maturity certificate and have spent three years at a university or technical institute, except that for descriptive geometry and machinery the certificates of a complete real school are sufficient. The teacherships are divided into the three departments of language, geography and history, and mathematics and natural history, the latter dividing again into mathematics, descriptive geometry and linear drawing, physics and theoretical mechanics, machinery, natural history, and chemistry. The candidates in any division must show on examination a thorough knowledge and capacity in that department, though for teacherships in the lower school those subjects are omitted in the examination which are taught only in the higher classes. Candidates in the language of in-

struction must undergo an examination in some additional branch, at least for the lower classes. The examination is both written and oral, the former embraced in two questions, for the solution of which six or eight weeks are allowed, with liberty to employ any means of assistance attainable, and two other questions, for each of which twelve hours are given and the candidate restricted to his own mental resources. The oral examination extends beyond the special department to all the branches of the course. Trial is also finally made of the candidate's natural fitness for teaching. The examination, if unsatisfactory, may be repeated at such time and to such extent as the examining board may decide. A year spent in actual teaching follows, to farther test and improve his fitness for the actual duties of the schoolroom, one or two classes being placed in his charge for not over nine hours in the week, under the observation of the director and class ordinarius.

*Expenses*.—The Educational Fund and the manner in which the real schools are sustained have been already described. The expenses of the schools vary considerably, but the total annual expenses of a complete real school may be estimated at 18,000 fl., and of a lower real school at 10,000 fl., according to which estimate the total expense of the real schools within the non-Hungarian provinces amounts annually to 600,000 fl.

*Apprentice Schools*.—Schools for factory operatives and tradesmen's apprentices, at the instigation of the chamber of commerce and trade, have been recently established at the real schools and at some of the gymnasiums, the teachers of those institutions being engaged to give instruction upon Sundays and weekday evenings. This instruction is in such branches as have reference to trade and industrial occupations, and of such special character as the local want may require.

### 3. *Results of the Real School System.*

What has already been effected through the establishment of real schools gives much promise for the future, but the system is yet in its infancy and there is a manifest need of a large increase in their numbers. This want is the most pressing in Upper Austria, Styria, Prague and Southern Bohemia, and of all the provinces Lower Austria alone is tolerably supplied. In the principal industrial provinces of Austria, the attendance in Moravia and Silesia is one scholar to a population of 820, in Lower Austria 903, in Bohemia 1,360, while in the comparatively non-producing provinces of Galicia and Bukowina it is but one in 7,800, and in Lombardy and Venice, where the idea of the real school has not yet become popular, but one in 8,420. The general ratio of attendance is less than at the gymnasiums. The nationalities rank somewhat as follows—Jews, (one in 680)—Germans and Czechish Moravians, (1,300)—Italians, Slovenes and Poles, (5,000)—Croats and Servians, (8,300)—Wallachs (14,000)—and Ruthenes, (41,000.) The increase of attendance from 1857 to 1863 was seventeen per cent., or three times that of the population, while

the total increase from 1851 to 1863 at the gymnasiums and real schools of all grades combined was fifty-eight per cent, or more than five times the rate of increase of the population. The attendance of "privatisten" is very small and is mostly confined to particular schools and especially to the lower classes. The overcrowding of the classes exists even to a greater extent than at the gymnasiums. The proportion of regular teachers is nearly the same, being seventy-three per cent. of the whole number.

In regard to salaries the real schools are decidedly inferior to the gymnasiums, and in many places the lower grade of salary barely suffices to afford the merest necessities of life. The condition of the libraries and natural history collections, &c., is as yet very unsatisfactory, notwithstanding all the liberality of the communes. The chemical laboratories everywhere are comparatively the best furnished. But in stipends the real schools are greatly deficient. Of all the 9,821 students of 1863, only 131 received stipends, which amounted to 14,020 fl., and these were mostly confined to the provincial capitals. The public mind, however, is awaking to their necessity, and assistance is also rendered to some extent by aid societies and in other ways.

On comparing the ages of the students of the first and sixth classes at the close of the year, it is found that not five but six years have elapsed between the classes and the result is nearly the same as if the regular course of instruction were seven instead of six years, showing that the present course is too narrowly limited in time. This result is partly due to the overburdening the pupils with branches that should be taught elsewhere. The introduction of architecture and machinery, which in other countries are found only in special schools, the likewise unusual excess of chemical instruction, and the admission of such studies as mercantile arithmetic and the principles of customs and exchange, which better belong to a special course of practical instruction, are condemned by all schoolmen. Even after the removal of these branches, and of calligraphy and business composition, which have been assumed from the higher course of the burgher school, a more judicious and systematic arrangement of the remaining branches would be required, especially of drawing and mathematics, natural history and physics. Hand in hand with this reform would go the extension of the course by studies of a broader educational character. More extended instruction in history, and the giving to the grammar and literature of some modern language an equal position with the present language of instruction, meet with universal approval, and many of the most experienced teachers desire the change of the lower real school into a real-gymnasium by the introduction of classical study, and the continuation of Latin, at least as an optional, in the higher classes. For this purpose the propriety of adding another year to the lower real school course is not disputed; but a like extension of the higher course will also be necessary if it be made to include, as is proposed, one or two modern languages, or Latin, and perhaps the elements of philosophy.

There would still remain, as optional branches, calligraphy, music, gymnastics, and one or more modern languages, for which there should be no requirement of special tuition fees. The burgher school would then be restored to its proper position and, with the newly organized apprentice schools, would accommodate many of those students who now attend the real schools from want of other institutions more suited to their needs and the attempt to supply whose requirements makes now the duty of the real school the more complicated and difficult.

During the last five years the proportion of scholars in each class that were found prepared for promotion at the end of the year has been seventy-five per cent. About twelve per cent. attain the certificate of the first grade. Nearly two-thirds of the students, upon completion of the course, enter upon higher technical studies, four per cent. upon commercial study, and as many more upon preparation for teacherships, while over one-fourth apply themselves to agricultural study or forestry, enter the naval academy, or engage immediately in business, in a government clerkship, or the like. An increase in the kinds of business into which one who has passed the real school can immediately enter, will naturally follow the proposed extension of its general studies and the introduction of the maturity examination as a guarantee of the intellectual proficiency of the student. This examination and the study of Latin will also probably assure admission to particular departments of university study.

#### IV.—PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HUNGARY, CROATIA, SLAVONIA AND TRANSYLVANIA.\*

It is needless to represent in detail how little the general interests of education could prosper within the Hungarian provinces under the calamities and adverse influence of the last two centuries, the commotions attendant upon wars, revolutions and conquest, dissensions between races

\*Prior to the revolution of 1848 "Hungary and its dependencies (*partes adnexæ*)" included Hungary proper, and the kingdom of Croatia and Slavonia. The Grand Duchy of Transylvania was essentially distinct, but united to Austria through the crown of Hungary. In 1849 the whole territory was reorganized into four separate provinces, similar to the western provinces of the Empire, viz., Hungary, Croatia and Slavonia, the Servian Waywodeship and Banat, and Transylvania, but in 1860 the Emperor found himself compelled to restore the earlier organization. The population of Hungary is very diverse in race and religion, comprising the Magyars (4,500,000) in the fertile regions of the centre and S. W., the Slovenes (1,800,000) in the mountain regions of the N. W. and N., and the Ruthenes (450,000) in those of the N. E., Servians, Slavonians and Illyrians, 100,000 in the S., Croats and Wends (100,000) in the S. W., Wallachs (350,000) in the S. E., Germans (1,000,000) and Jews (350,000) in scattered districts and towns, besides Gipsies, Szeklers, Armenians, Bulgarians, &c. In religion, 4,700,000 are Roman Catholic, 750,000 Catholic or United Greek, 550,000 non-united or Orthodox Greek, 1,750,000 Calvinists, 900,000 Lutherans, and 350,000 Jews. The inhabitants of Croatia and Slavonia are principally Croats and Servians, and almost exclusively Roman Catholics. They are very little cultivated, in fact semi-barbarians. In Transylvania the distinctions of race and religion are so strongly defined as to have long been constitutionally recognized, dividing the territory into the lands of the Magyars (270,000 Calvinists and 200,000 Roman Catholic) chiefly in the N. E., of the Szeklers (Unitarians, 50,000) in the E., of the Saxons (Lutheran, 200,000) in the S. and N. E. and of the Wallachs, (500,000 united and 600,000 non-united Greek.)

and creeds, and unceasing struggles for civil and religious liberty. Yet early exceptions existed. The numerous German colonies that in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries had settled in Northern Hungary and in Transylvania were not only conspicuously prosperous even in times of the greatest trouble, but carefully nourished the germ of classical culture. Here the tenets of the Reformation found ready acceptance and the missionaries of Lutheran doctrine brought with them also Melancthon's system of instruction. In the middle of the sixteenth century there had been organized an excellent gymnasium at Cronstadt, and several of the previous Latin schools of the cities were afterwards raised to a similar grade, while scarcely a community of the Lutheran faith remained without its common school. The same was true to a less extent of the Calvinist communities, the Magyar pastors and teachers of that faith being less cultivated than the Lutheran Germans. Elementary instruction among the catholics was due almost solely to the labors of the Piarists. But from the times of Ferdinand II. and Cardinal Pázmán, the Jesuits began to multiply their gymnasiums, (the first was founded at Presburg in 1626,) so that at the expulsion of the order in 1773 there were twenty-seven in Hungary, six in Croatia and Slavonia, one in the Banat, and three in Transylvania, besides which the Jesuits had nine and the Piarists seven "convicts."

Before the middle of the eighteenth century many of the Protestant intermediate schools and endowments had perished, nearly all the Magyar magnates had returned to the catholic faith, and intercourse between the Germans and their fatherland had become neglected, to the detriment of culture and the schools. In the Banat also the long continued sway of the Turks and the exclusion, as in Transylvania, of the Wallachs and of all belonging to the Greek church from all political rights, had exerted a most depressing effect, and in the indifference of that church to educational matters the government itself finally interfered and directed the civil authorities to prepare a plan of school organization. But the Empress Maria Theresa took the school interests of the entire empire under her care and simultaneously with the creation of the Board of Education of the western provinces formed also an Educational and School Board for Hungary, through whom the first normal school was founded at Presburg in 1774. A "ratio educationis" or general school system, was also reported by them in 1777, adapting in some measure the school ordinances of the western provinces to the relations of the kingdom, for which purpose it was divided, with Croatia and Slavonia, into nine "literary districts." In each district there was immediately established a normal school, and the imperial estates took the lead in introducing common schools, which were required in every parish as far as practicable. The plan designed for the Greek population of the Banat was approved in 1774, under which within three years 373 schools were established, forty others enlarged, schoolbooks were prepared, and teachers sent to Vienna for instruction. But in 1778 the Banat was united to Hungary, forming



another literary district under its school system, which, however, received little attention beyond the normal schools and the imperial estates until after the death of the Empress, that active rivalry between cities and communities, landed proprietors and clergy, that was shown in Western Austria being here wanting. In Transylvania teachers were trained in the new method of instruction at the Theresan Orphan Asylum, but here, as in Hungary, the new system found little favor with the non-catholic population, and the course of study proposed in the "ratio educationis" for the Latin schools, gymnasiums and philosophical classes, was carried out but rarely.

On the expulsion of the Jesuits the property of the order was devoted to public instruction and realized in 1780 a sum of over 10,000,000 fl., from which deducting the sums set apart to the universities, there remained for other institutions an annual income of 280,000 fl., corresponding at the then rate of interest to a capital of 7,000,000 fl. That little immediate good resulted was chiefly owing to the violent though well-meant measures of Joseph II., by whom school attendance was made compulsory and extended even to Sunday instruction, German was introduced into the high schools and a knowledge of it made necessary to admission at the gymnasiums, tuition fees were established though repugnant to privilege and custom, and the effort was made to give a mixed or "paritätisch" character to the high school, which caused equal offense to all denominations. These and other educational measures excited so zealous an opposition that they became wholly inoperative and at the death of the Emperor (1790) were entirely done away with.

By the Hungarian diet, which reestablished the former constitutional position of the kingdom, a new "ratio educationis" was prepared in tolerable conformity with the principles of Rottenham as developed by the Austrian Board of Educational Reform, which was approved in 1806 and immediately introduced into all the catholic schools of Hungary and its dependencies. Every catholic community was required to sustain a trivial school, seventy-three cities and market towns should each have its high school, and the ten normal schools should serve as training institutions for teachers. Latin was made the language of instruction in the philosophical classes and as far as practicable at the gymnasiums.—There were then fifty-four complete six-class gymnasiums and six four-class "scholæ grammaticæ," thirty of which belonged to the religious orders. The gymnasiums at Ofen, Raab, Presburg, Kaschau, Grosswardien and Agram (the seats of the university and of the five academies,) were styled archgymnasiums and were under the same direction as those higher institutions. Philosophical classes existed at these places and at the lycæums at Erlau, Waizen, Steinamanger and Szegedin. Upon restoration of the convents, abolished by Joseph II., instruction was made obligatory upon them, and the transfer of existing gymnasiums to the care of the orders was encouraged. As the Piarists by the sequestration of their estates were disabled from supporting the twenty-five gymnasiums that

belonged to them, an appropriation of 16,000 fl. was made to each from the religious and educational funds.

But the protestants of Hungary, after the death of Joseph II., protested against all subordination to catholic school legislation and were permitted by the diet of 1791 to retain entire control of their schools of every grade. As they refused to introduce the "ratio educationis" into their schools, catholic children were in turn forbidden to attend them without special permission. Left thus wholly to themselves, the efforts of the communities for common school improvement were but partial and partially successful, and the zeal at first shown in some places soon died away. Though in the cities aid was given from the public treasury, yet most of the schools were dependent solely upon the protestant church and school funds, which were usually so insufficient that the teachers were obliged to resort to other occupations to eke out a support that their tuition fees and other perquisites failed to give. The protestant gymnasiums on the other hand became very numerous, though without any uniform course of study. Even at the five Lutheran gymnasiums of the first rank the classes were burdened with a multitude of studies to the neglect of the classics, the teachers were poorly paid, (with salaries generally of 100—140 fl., besides tuition fees, &c.,) and the libraries and cabinets were exceedingly deficient. The remaining Lutheran gymnasiums were far inferior to these, giving instruction only in the elements of geography and history, arithmetic, and geometry, in addition to religion and Latin. The numerous "scholæ grammaticæ" (some fifty in number) had been changed judiciously to high schools. The Reformed colleges at Debreczin and Sáros-Patak, the "pupillæ oculi" of Hungarian Calvinists, were very peculiarly organized. Of the students of the four-years course of philosophy and theology, which was conducted at each college by six professors who had received their training at foreign universities, four-fifths (distinguished by the "toga") were prepared for service as teachers and pastors, living together in the college under the supervision of a "senior" and twelve "sworn men" (*geschwornen*.) On completing the course they received teacherships for one or two years in the ten lower classes of the college. These institutions possessed libraries of 20,000 volumes each, well endowed museums, and endowment funds of 140,000 fl. and 120,000 fl. respectively. The college at Pápa and seven gymnasiums were organized to some extent in the same manner. The Magyar language was taught at all these schools and was made the language of instruction at Debreczin in 1798. But the need of reform at all these institutions was deeply felt and plans were sanctioned both by the Calvinist convention in 1807 and by the Lutheran in 1809, though neither could be put in operation.

The common schools for the Greeks were sustained by the government and existed, at least for boys, in nearly all the parishes of that sect in Hungary. Three teachers' schools were established for their benefit, and they had also two Latin schools in the Banat.

In Transylvania there were a lyceum and nine gymnasiums belonging to the catholics, five Lutheran gymnasiums, four colleges and six gymnasiums of the Calvinists, one college and three gymnasiums for Unitarians. There were also a normal school and seven catholic high schools sustained by the State, and two Greek catholic high schools. The Lutherans were well supplied with trivial schools, eight of which were enlarged to high schools. Teachers were trained at the gymnasiums. Some of the Calvinist and Unitarian common schools also were tolerably well organized. In the military districts scattered through the territory public instruction was in a somewhat better condition. There were here nine catholic schools, in which German, as the language of the army, was for the high most part the language of instruction.

In this undeveloped and unorganized condition public instruction remained until the middle of the present century.

In 1841 there were philosophical classes in Hungary at nineteen catholic and seventeen protestant institutions. The catholics had fifty-nine complete and nine lower gymnasiums, (of which fifty-seven belonged to the orders,) the Lutherans seven complete and six lower, the Calvinists three complete and five lower, and the Greek church two complete gymnasiums, besides the gymnasial courses at the five protestant colleges and seven lyceums. The Calvinists had also occasional Latin schools. The total attendance at the philosophical classes was 3,000—at the gymnasiums 20,000, of whom 16,000 were catholic, 2,000 Lutheran, 1,500 Calvinist, and 500 Greek. The instruction at the catholic institutions was still based upon the "ratio educationis" of 1806, while the salaries had been essentially increased. An attempt had been again made to reform the course of study at the Lutheran schools but with little success, owing to local opposition and prejudice. A kind of seminary for gymnasial training existed at Oedenburg, where the teachers received increased salaries, but elsewhere they were still dependent upon fees and perquisites and considered their office as only preliminary to a pastorate. The common schools, as respects support, were still left mainly without assistance, and where their maintenance was attempted to be made obligatory by legislation, it was resisted by the lower nobility. Even where some small endowment existed it was in the form of pasturage, fuel, fruit, wine, &c., and the teacher was in by far the most cases dependent upon agriculture, cattle raising, shopkeeping, or the offices of village notary or hedge advocate. An attempt was made in 1846 to remodel the catholic, Greek and Jewish schools after the School Constitution of Western Austria, but this "systema scholarum elementarium" was little heeded. The administration of the schools was especially defective, local supervision being almost unknown and actual control even more rarely exercised. In the Lutheran schools the age of admission and the course and method of teaching were wholly undetermined, and the same was true of the Reformed schools except so far as the teachers were scholars from the colleges and governed by traditionary rules and customs. Attendance was nowhere compulsory.

Every one that could had a private teacher, more or less poor, and the country children were sent to school only in winter and most irregularly. Among the Lutherans a motive for retaining a child at school existed in the requirements for confirmation. In all Hungary and its dependencies the actual attendance was but thirty-seven per cent.—of the Jewish children seventy-five per cent., of the Roman catholic and protestant above fifty per cent., of the Greek fourteen per cent., and of the Greek catholic but eight per cent. The training which the teachers received really amounted to little, as the normal schools had remained stationary and were ill suited for the work. The protestant schools were frequently supplied by pupils of the lyceums and gymnasiums, but teachers could be found everywhere who were simply workmen, still carrying on their trade, and yet oftener discharged soldiers, strolling actors, or the like. In order to diminish this evil several teachers' schools were finally established through the efforts of some of the bishops, and in 1845 the diet authorized five similar seminaries at State expense. But the efficiency of these institutions as well as of other legislative measures was greatly impaired by the rapid progress of the Magyar movement to enforce the supremacy of that language. This movement originated in the powerful reaction in favor of the national tongue that had followed the attempt of Joseph II. in 1783 to force the German upon Hungary as the official language. The Hungarian diet of 1791 had decreed that the Magyar should be the business language of the realm and made it a necessary study for all aspirants to public office. The National Academy, the theatre, and the press continued to exert a strong influence in the same direction, and in 1830 legislation for its supremacy was renewed, culminating in the requirement of 1844 that it should be made as soon as possible the sole language of instruction, of the pulpit and church, of books, &c., even in the non-Magyar districts. This aroused in turn the opposition of the Slaves especially, even more than of the Germans, and the attempted enforcement united in sympathy with them the Slovenes, Croats, and Servians, with political results most disastrous to Hungary.

In Transylvania in 1841 there were philosophical classes at three catholic lyceums, at four Calvinist and one unitarian colleges, and at five Lutheran gymnasiums; there were also thirteen Roman catholic, one Greek catholic, five Lutheran, five Calvinist, and three unitarian gymnasiums—all of which were under the control of the respective ecclesiastical authorities. The philosophical course in the catholic institutions was limited to philosophy, history, mathematics, and physics. German was taught at most of the colleges and was the language of instruction at the Lutheran schools. The catholic gymnasial course resembled that of the "ratio educationis." The Lutheran gymnasiums had a course of study, though but imperfectly carried out, in which real studies were to some extent included. The orthodox Greeks, debarred by law from every branch of public service but the military, took little interest in education, had no gymnasiums and rarely attended those of other sects, were but poor sup-

plied with common schools, and their ecclesiastics even were often very ignorant. The catholic common schools were better sustained, but still deficient in number. The Saxon territory was the best supplied and with the best schools. The number of schools in 1846 was 1,986, attended by nearly one-half of the children. The Magyar influence here also was strongly felt, but was persistently resisted by the Saxons.

The revolution of 1848 had its natural effect upon all educational interests. But a new era commenced with the closer incorporation of these territories with the empire and the formation of distinct provinces with similar relations to those of Western Austria. The energy of the Ministry of Instruction under the direction of Thun in the regeneration of public instruction in these provinces effected more in one year than had been done in any previous decade. The first thing done was a complete enrolment of the common schools. The total number was found to be 10,422, of which there were in Hungary 4,471 catholic, 221 Greek, 879 Lutheran, 1,771 Calvinist, and 83 Jewish—in the Banat, 349 catholic, 181 Greek, 47 Lutheran, 15 Calvinist, and 12 Jewish—in Croatia, 196 catholic, 32 Greek, and 1 Jewish—in Transylvania, 657 catholic, 367 Greek, 461 Lutheran, 563 Calvinist, and 116 unitarian. With great uniformity two-thirds of these schools had but a single class, while of high schools there were 393 in Hungary, 26 in the Banat, 12 in Croatia, and 47 in Transylvania, and of female schools in the same provinces respectively 394, 23, 13, and 195. According to the language of instruction there were in Hungary 777 German, 1,711 Slavic, 3,984 Magyar, 246 Wallach, and 761 mixed—in the Banat, 204 German, 196 Slavic, 77 Magyar, 15 Wallach, and 112 mixed—in Croatia, 3 German, 157 Slavic, and 69 mixed—in Transylvania, 455 German, 949 Magyar, 742 Wallach, and 18 mixed. The average salary in the different districts of Hungary was from 90 fl. to 150 fl., in the Banat 210 fl., and in Croatia 250 fl. The total number of teachers was 14,131 in Hungary, 1,292 in the Banat, and 477 in Croatia, of whom 6,003 were catechists, 874 assistants, and 118 female teachers. The percentage of attendance in the districts of Hungary was from 30 to 60 per cent. of boys and from 22 to 47 per cent. of girls—in the Banat 43 per cent. of boys and 29 per cent. of girls—in Croatia 11 per cent.—and in Transylvania 26 per cent. of both sexes.

Effort was first made for the increase of schools and classes, the better position of the teachers, the enlargement of school-buildings, &c., in which the Ministry met with the hearty cooperation of many of the communities, and among the considerable sums at various times contributed in this behalf may be mentioned the gift from Baron Haynau of 1,000,000 fl. to the Hungarian Jews for the conspicuous part taken by them in the revolution, to be spent in the erection of model high schools. Teachers were drawn from the western provinces, sometimes at considerable expense, and as there were no trained female teachers the new larger female schools were entrusted to the female religious orders. The gradual introduction of more energetic school supervision largely increased the attendance of

scholars, the long interruptions of the country schools in summer became less frequent, calligraphy, drawing and singing were almost for the first time introduced, and Sunday schools for adults, hitherto almost unknown, were established in many places. The publication of the Hungarian "School Messenger" was commenced in 1856. The western districts of Hungary, (Oedenburg and Pesth-Ofen,) were preeminently active, taxing themselves heavily for school purposes and in five years doubling the number of their schools. The "Pusztá" or "Tanya" schools were an entirely new creation, by which elementary instruction was given to the scattered villages in the out-lying districts of the cities of lower Hungary. Szegedin, for example, had within its jurisdiction a territory of thirteen square miles in extent, (290 English square miles,) in which over 2,000 children were growing up in complete ignorance. This territory was now divided into twenty districts, school houses were erected, and appropriations made for the support of teachers. Where permanently located teachers were out of the question, circuit teachers were employed, and by some of the bishops Franciscan monks were sent out as teachers for the inhabitants of the steppes.

The Banat resumed the activity of the days of Theresa. The school buildings destroyed in the war were rebuilt, new ones erected, others enlarged, and in 1854 but two catholic parishes remained without common schools. Even Croatia and Slavonia were aroused to effort. The number of schools doubled and the attendance increased to nearly thirty per cent., though still over 900 villages with 20,000 children remained without schools. The Jews everywhere were conspicuous for the interest felt by them in the education of their children. Even the previously wholly neglected gipsy tribes (which number 60,000 in Hungary and over 80,000 in Transylvania) were brought to some extent under instruction, the recently more strict enforcement of the domicile and passport laws compelling them to partially lay aside their nomadic habits and engage in settled employments. In Transylvania the improvement of the catholic schools was effected more slowly, owing to the smaller proportion of the catholic population and the slower recovery from the disasters of the civil war. The Szecklers have made a notable advance since 1855, and Klausenburg, Hermannstadt and Cronstadt have emulated the cities of Hungary.

Legislation was at first chiefly limited to reaffirming the "Systema" of 1846 for all the Roman and Greek catholic, Greek, and Jewish schools in all the provinces, excepting Transylvania. In 1851 the text-book system of Western Austria was introduced and new books prepared, or the old ones revised, and in 1854 the gratuitous granting of books to the needy was commenced. Private instruction was discouraged and placed under stricter supervision. In 1853 the establishment of Teachers' Seminaries was undertaken by the government, resulting in the founding of sixteen Roman and one Greek catholic and two Greek schools in the different provinces, besides one for female teachers, and attendance at such an institution was in 1856 made indispensable for newly located teachers, both



male and female. Successive acts were passed assimilating the system of common schools more and more to that of the western provinces and gradually extending the scope of its action, until in 1859 the incorporation of all the above mentioned schools into the one general educational system of the Empire may be considered to have been completed—and though there was no want of complaint of the too direct interference of the civil authorities and of the undue encouragement of the German language, yet the essential improvement in the condition of the schools was generally recognized.

Considering the common school as in the strictest sense a sectarian institution, the government refrained from interfering with the school affairs of the protestants, beyond defining the character of the high school and requiring the permanent settlement of teachers. Forms were prescribed for their appointment only so far as they desired exemption from military service. Earnest endeavors were made in each of the evangelical denominations and in the unitarian to establish a fixed school system, but unsuccessfully. Still, improvements were made and schools and school attendance were increased in the Lutheran communities and to a less extent in the Calvinist. The permanent settlement of the teachers resulted beneficially, but the want of uniformity in the course of study and the inefficient supervision made cooperation difficult.

The statistics of 1858, approximately correct, show that the common schools had increased to 13,106, of which Hungary had 5,323 catholic, 376 Greek, 944 Lutheran, 1,920 Calvinist, and 258 Jewish—the Banat, 529 catholic, 595 Greek, 61 Lutheran, 22 Calvinist, and 43 Jewish—Croatia, 298 catholic, 88 Greek, and 4 Jewish—Transylvania, 830 catholic, 573 Greek, 529 Lutheran, 603 Calvinist, 107 unitarian, and 3 Jewish. The percentage of attendance in the several districts of Hungary was from 41 to 84 per cent. of boys and from 30 to 72 per cent. of girls—in the Banat, 71 per cent. of boys and 41 of girls—in Croatia, 13 per cent.—in Slavonia, 23 per cent.—and in Transylvania 62 per cent. of boys and 43 of girls.

For the regulation of the gymnasiums of Hungary and its former dependencies the "Plan of Organization" of the western provinces was prescribed in 1850, and here the sectarian character was so far made secondary that valid certificates could be issued only by such as were organized essentially in accordance with it. The catholic gymnasiums were soon altered in one way or another so as to conform to its requirements. But as, on the other hand, only a single lower gymnasium of all the protestant institutions consented to adapt itself to the plan, all the rest were in 1851 declared private institutions until a reorganization should be effected. The maturity examination was also introduced, though limited to some extent in the branches included. In 1853, in order to correct the existing want of uniformity, a general course of study was prescribed, and also regulations for the examination of candidates for teacherships. New gymnasiums, as models under the new system, were erected by the State

and provided with able teachers from the western provinces—at Presburg and Ofen in 1852, at Neusohl, Kaschau, and Leutschau in 1853, and at Unghvár in 1854. The course of study provided that the language of the majority of scholars should be chiefly used in instruction in the lower classes, and the German predominantly in the upper gymnasium, or at least in the highest class, for all subjects but religion and the native language, without excluding the latter as an aid. The protestant gymnasia complied but slowly with the requirements of the law and as in 1857 only seven complete and three four-class institutions had completed their reorganization, the rest were deprived of the title of gymnasium, excepting four complete and ten lower gymnasia which promised a speedy change and were simply deprived of the "public right" of granting certificates—as was also the Greek gymnasium at Neusatz.

The elements of opposition to the new system are thus seen to have acted far more powerfully here than in the western provinces. Not only did the representatives of both the protestant sects favor the extreme national party, but it found many supporters among the religious orders. The public feeling was strongly against those gymnasia in which German was exclusively used as the language of instruction, and a preference was expressed even for the mixed German and Latin that had once been usual. Clamors also arose against the introduction of Greek, the system of department teachers, and the overburdening of the scholars. Up to 1859 only three teachers of the religious gymnasia and as many of the protestant had submitted to the prescribed examination. The Ministry finally was induced in that year to allow to the corporation supporting a gymnasium the determination of the language of instruction, still maintaining German as an obligatory study and as the language to be employed in the maturity examination. Less opposition was shown in Transylvania, the Saxon protestants especially favoring the new system.

There therefore remained in 1859, in all the provinces, 90 "public" gymnasia, of which 14 were State institutions, 13 communal, 37 belonging to the religious orders, 10 Lutheran, 11 Calvinist, 3 unitarian, one Greek catholic, and one orthodox Greek. Of these again there were in Hungary 31 complete and 28 lower gymnasia, with 658 teachers and 11,209 students—in the Banat, two complete and three lower gymnasia, with 53 teachers and 1,098 students—in Croatia and Slavonia, four complete and two lower gymnasia, with 78 teachers and 1,047 students—in Transylvania, sixteen complete and six lower gymnasia, with 282 teachers and 4,018 students. At the remaining fifteen private gymnasia there were 127 teachers and 2,269 students. Of the entire number of students, 11,061 were catholic, 1,176 Greek, 5,851 protestant, 250 unitarian, and 1,293 Jewish—as to race, 10,902 were Magyars, 3,239 Germans, 2,636 Slaves, and 1,658 Wallachs.

But, on the other hand, in its measures for promoting real instruction the government met with no hindrance. Until 1848 the only real school in Hungary had been that at Presburg. In 1859 there had been estab-

lished two complete and three lower State real schools, one complete communal school at Pesth, and three lower ones in the Banat, and also two complete and four lower Lutheran schools, with a total of 153 teachers and 2,159 pupils. Many of the teachers were drawn from the western provinces. The language of instruction was principally German—in five schools, to some extent otherwise. To the institution at Pesth there was also attached a trade school similar to that at Vienna, and a course was opened for fitting teachers for the burgher schools.

In October, 1860, the organization of the provinces was restored to its former basis, and the first action on the part of Hungary in respect to public instruction was the restoration of the earlier system of administration. The territory was again divided into five literary districts, over each of which was placed a Director of Education, with two associates, immediately subordinate through the "School Board" to the government, and having under his supervision the catholic and Jewish schools of every grade within his district. The evangelical school districts were left unchanged, coinciding with the four superintendencies of each sect. The Greek schools so far as not exclusively under the control of the episcopal authorities, were under the immediate care of the government.

With all other officials who were not naturalized citizens of Hungary, all "foreign" teachers were required to leave the kingdom before the close of the year 1861. These men, who had devoted themselves indefatigably to the duties of their positions, had been already subjected to much hostility, injustice, and insult, and even natives of Hungary who had favored the school reform, lost their influence and preferred to leave the kingdom, at least temporarily. For the common schools, meanwhile, the existing regulations were nominally retained, but for the gymnasiums a convention of teachers met at Ofen in August, 1861, by whom a new course of study was prepared, which was however not carried into operation. A provisional organization was prescribed by the government in October of the same year, which was shortly afterwards confirmed. By this, class teachers were again employed in the two lower classes, the same teacher giving instruction in all the branches of his class. The department system of teachers commenced with the third class. As to the language of instruction, the gymnasium became either exclusively Magyar, or mixed—some other native language being employed in the latter, conjointly with the Magyar, commencing with the third class, or earlier if expressly desired by the parents. Instruction in German is obligatory even in the purely Magyar schools, and wherever the population belongs to different races the native tongue of each is made an obligatory study. Great stress is still laid upon the Latin language, to which forty-five hours weekly are given in all the eight classes, while mathematics receives but seventeen, and Greek in the upper gymnasium but six. The other branches are geography and history, natural history, physics, and philosophy. The total number of hours per week is from eighteen to twenty-three in each class. In August, 1862, an examining board for

candidates for gymnasial teacherships was appointed, without whose approval no teacher could be thereafter located, and even those already engaged were required to submit to an examination, those only being excepted who had received a doctorate. A thorough knowledge of the Magyar language is required of all candidates. Essentially the same regulations have been adopted by the evangelical gymnasiums.

In 1863 there were in Hungary ninety gymnasiums—fifty-eight catholic, fourteen Lutheran, fifteen Calvinist, two common to both sects, and one Greek. Twenty-seven of the catholic, five of the Lutheran, and the Greek were lower gymnasiums. Of instructors, 641 were regular teachers, 146 assistants and 137 associate teachers. At the catholic schools, 93 per cent of the directors and 84 per cent of the remaining regular teachers were ecclesiastics—at the evangelical, but twenty-five and sixteen per cent. The number of students was 21,052, distributed very unequally, several gymnasiums having from six to eight hundred, while nineteen had each less than one hundred pupils. In religion, 11,375 were Roman catholic, 917 Greek catholic, 920 Greek, 2,365 Lutheran, 3,739 Calvinist, and 1,733 Jewish. Maturity examinations were held at twenty-six catholic and fourteen evangelical institutions, and of 1,165 students ninety per cent. were approved.

It had soon become evident that the new course of study was separating the gymnasiums of Hungary from those of Western Austria and making it difficult for their students to enter the higher institutions of that country, while it had been so variously understood and applied by the different gymnasiums that there was very little uniformity among themselves. Accordingly, in 1864, the teachers of many of them were consulted respecting a revision of the course and their opinions have been submitted to a commission, who will report to the Educational Council.

In the real schools little change has been made, except that the Magyar element is here also made more prominent and increased importance given to that language and to the geography and history of Hungary. There are four complete and ten lower real schools, of which four are State institutions and the remainder communal, with 140 teachers (of whom but 24 are ecclesiastics,) and 2,185 students—616 German and 1,330 Magyar—1,540 Roman catholic, and 392 Jewish. Four schools average over 300 pupils, and seven have less than 100 each.

Of the present number of common schools in Hungary there are no reliable statistics. It may, however, be said generally that their number has somewhat declined, the communities not being required by law to maintain their schools and therefore permitting them to go to decay—especially in the Northern and Eastern portions among the Ruthenes and Wallachs.

In Croatia and Slavonia the overthrow of the Austrian system was less violent and complete; the foreign teachers were removed more gradually, the school administration was unchanged, and the course of study prepared by the diet of 1861 for all institutions, from the common schools to

the projected university, has remained inoperative. The system therefore of Western Austria, introduced in 1849 for the intermediate schools, still remains essentially in force. The language of instruction is the Croatian, though at all the gymnasiums and at the real school at Agram the German language is an obligatory study—as is also true of the Italian at the real school at Fiume. There are four complete and two lower gymnasiums, with 72 teachers and 1,116 students, of whom 999 are Roman catholic. The real school at Agram has twelve teachers and 119 students. The common schools remain essentially as in 1860. In 1863 there were 23 high and 502 trivial schools. At 202 schools Sunday instruction to adults was also given. The number of pupils was 36,390, the attendance being forty-five per cent. of the boys and forty-three per cent. of the girls. In the language of instruction, 378 were Croat, 7 German, and 140 mixed—in religion, 394 Roman catholic and 115 Greek.

Transylvania severed to a less extent its connection with Western Austria. Of the modification in the gymnasial course of study enacted by the higher authorities of the several denominations and approved by the government, the most important was that making instruction in the geography and history of Transylvania more detailed in its character, and admitting metaphysics and moral philosophy into the two higher classes. The Calvinist institutions varied most from the existing arrangement. The language of instruction at all the Lutheran and at the two principal catholic gymnasiums is German, at the remainder Magyar. At the five complete and two lower Roman Catholic gymnasiums, the one Greek catholic, the six Lutheran, and the one unitarian, there were in 1863, 207 teachers, and 3,170 students, of whom 837 were German, 1,151 Magyar, and 1,120 Wallach—1,707 Roman and Greek catholic, 697 evangelical, 325 unitarian, and 333 Greek and Armenian. Of the complete Greek gymnasium and the six Calvinist, (the gymnasial courses at the four colleges and two distinct gymnasiums,) no statistics are given. Maturity examinations are held at all the complete gymnasiums.

We have little information respecting the real and common schools of Transylvania. The former have retained essentially their earlier organization. The four Lutheran schools have 31 teachers with 358 students. The common schools in the Hungarian and Szeckler districts, left to the care of the communities, have lost much that should have been preserved. A complete census of these was made in 1865.

## PRIMARY EDUCATION IN AUSTRIA.

SCHOOLS FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, IN AUSTRIA, IN 1888.

Countries.	Population in 1888.	Children from 5 to 13 years of age.	Primary Schools.		Repetition Schools.		Saves attending school.		Total Children at school.	Instructors.			Cost of Schools in Florins.
			No. of Primary Schools.	Children in actual attendance.	No. of Repeti- tion Schools.	Children in actual attend- ance.	Boys.	Girls.		Re- ligious.	Lay.	Total.	
Lower Austria .....	1,400,000	157,105	1,101	154,179	1,019	58,200	113,591	98,488	212,979	1,127	2,912	3,839	841,007
Upper Austria .....	846,000	90,576	626	86,455	606	41,435	65,580	62,840	127,990	718	1,114	1,583	185,871
Bohemia .....	4,173,000	526,569	3,470	494,229	3,431	229,812	376,560	347,481	724,041	1,841	5,781	7,143	475,967
Moravia and Silesia .....	2,172,000	287,732	1,856	272,638	1,855	177,239	231,826	218,031	449,877	1,399	3,026	4,425	264,708
Gallcia .....	4,728,000	514,308	1,839	47,278	591	80,092	67,965	80,235	97,300	905	2,037	2,942	124,627
Tyrol .....	839,000	104,439	1,618	107,597	1,191	46,673	80,697	73,483	154,180	1,539	2,185	3,724	101,486
Styria .....	976,000	101,990	624	76,869	567	35,106	61,463	50,519	111,975	647	967	1,614	99,696
Carnthia and Carinthia .....	764,000	85,533	365	27,817	404	18,805	24,435	20,187	44,622	358	518	876	110,545
Illyrian coast .....	476,000	59,250	111	9,917	84	3,316	3,353	3,650	13,233	101	298	327	65,738
Lombardy and Venice .....	8,664,000	588,665	5,178	295,009	290	8,966	191,167	70,508	261,373	8,697	5,965	9,462	823,300
Transylvania .....	2,025,000	202,000	1,522	51,343	80	720	82,535	19,568	53,068	423	1,307	1,950	60,000
Military Frontier .....	1,195,000	126,674	1,113	64,560	776	20,908	56,303	29,150	86,458	862	1,266	2,128	130,598
Dalmatia .....	890,000	39,000	53	3,962	"	"	3,355	607	3,962	46	98	144	19,370
Total .....	28,452,000	2,886,441	19,536	1,674,788	10,784	664,197	1,314,460	1,024,525	2,338,985	13,183	26,842	40,025	2,795,791



TABLE II.—INSTITUTIONS OF SECONDARY AND SUPERIOR EDUCATION.

	No.	Pro- fessors.	Students.	Outlay.	Bursar- ships.	Endow- ments.
<b>UNIVERSITIES.</b>						
Vienna .....	1	71	4,718	165,671	256	21,583
Graz .....	1	98	876	25,372	47	1,967
Innsbruck .....	1	24	317	25,053	52	3,593
Prague .....	1	63	3,341	66,864	55	3,065
Olmutz .....	1	26	640	29,525	112	5,600
Lemberg .....	1	41	1,403	53,593	48	4,480
Pesth .....	1	...	...	...	...	...
Pavia .....	1	60	1,316	80,821	24	4,200
Padua .....	1	40	1,380	98,646	...	...
Total (without Hungary)....	9	353	13,871	545,545	594	43,788
<b>LYCEA.</b>						
Salsburg, with Theol., Philos., and Medicine	1	20	212	23,465	7	455
Linz " " " "	1	12	167	12,090	10	362
Laibach " " " "	1	23	299	22,160	30	2,294
Klagenfurth " " " "	1	14	171	4,624	26	1,409
Klausenburg " " " "	1	14	330	8,810	...	...
In Hungary, 14*	5	83	1,179	71,140	82	4,520
<b>SEMINARIES FOR DIVINES.</b>						
Vienna .....	1	5	50	17,007	30	2,400
Redemptorists (for their order).....	1	6	8	...	...	...
Admont .....	1	6	8	...	...	...
Mantern .....	1	7	9	2,650	...	...
Tarnow .....	2	8	156	4,193	...	...
Przemysl .....	1	5	31	3,010	...	...
Lemberg .....	1	9	30	4,765	...	...
Carlowitz (Greek Church).....	1	7	46	15,128	...	...
Zam .....	1	1	60	180	...	...
Hermannstadt (Greek).....	1	1	60	180	...	...
In Hungary, 2†.....	10	54	409	46,933	36	2,400
COLLEGES OF PHILOSOPHY‡.....	25	166	3,192	127,089	38	2,140
<b>SPECIAL INSTITUTIONS.</b> { for boys .....						
..... { for girls..	31	195	3,508	248,151	163	29,097
	10	29	429	21,775	21	2,026
<b>GYMNASIA§ (Grammar-Schools) { Catholic .....</b>						
..... { Protestant	116	899	25,458	505,350	446	20,516
	14	89	2,451	12,963	13	72
	198	1,378	35,038	915,328	681	53,850
Total cost of the higher establishments for education, without including Hungary ..	222	1,868	50,497	1,578,955	1,387	104,558

\* 2 at Presburg; 2 Raab; 1 Agram, Debreczin, Eperies, Erlau, Grosswardein, Kásmark, Cashau, Oedenburg, Papa, Saros-Patak.

† At Keresztur and Torda.

‡ At Krems, Kremsmünster, Graz, Trent, Budweis, Leitomischl, Pilsen, Brünn, Nikolsburg, Przemysl, Tarnopol, Czernowitz, Zara, Milan, Brescia, Cremona, Mantua, Bergamo, Como, Lodi, Venice, Verona, Udine, Vicenza.

In Hungary, at Stein am Auger and Szegedin, 2.

§ Hungary has 67 Catholic and 13 Protestant Gymnasia.

The Mining Academy at Schemnitz has 7 Professors, 233 Students: it costs 11,500 florins, and has 55 Bursarships endowed with 11,000 florins annually.

TABLE III.—ACADEMIES AND BOARDING-SCHOOLS.

TABLE III.—ACADEMIES AND BOARDING-SCHOOLS.									
	No.	Professors.	Pupils.		Outlay in florins.	Scholars.			
			In the house.	Out of the house.		Receiving instruction gratis in the house.		Receiving stipends out of the house.	
						No.	Charge.	No.	Charge.
For Boys :—	98	727	6,652	8,153	1,143,286	2,539	florins. 524,292	41	florins. 5,958
For general education.	51	189	3,293	1,219	684,172	2,317	485,383	835	21,149
For Theology .....	40	181	3,457	.....	613,392	2,725	450,036	.....	.....
For Military Schools..	101	612	4,125	586	625,286	2,549	355,204	10	1,310
For Girls .....	99	1,537	.....	3,928	295,166	1,445	187,652	2,373	77,331
For both .....	17								
Total.....	807	1,803	19,004	7,984	3,311,342	11,575	1,937,572	2,759	105,748

TABLE VI.—ACADEMIES OF SCIENCE, LITERATURE, AND THE FINE ARTS, IN 1836.

	No of Es- tablish- ments.	Directing.	Members.				Total.	Pupils.	Expen- diture.	Bursarships.	
			Ordinary.	Honorary.	Corres- ponding.	Con- tributing.				No.	Endow- ment.
Academies of Science and Literature .....	18	12	1,824	520	607	3,070	276	59,757	21	8,922	
Academies of Fine Arts .....	6	56	127	204	92	460	2,798	92,402	40	2,373	
Agricultural Colleges and Unions .....	11	3	4,343	262	1,004	5,945	29	21,946	3	1,781	
Museums, &c. ....	10	62	2,573	405	66	3,222	704	21,440	12	16	
Total.....	45	133	8,867	1,491	1,709	12,697	8,807	195,545	76	7,692	

## IX. SCHOOLS AS THEY WERE IN THE UNITED STATES.

SIXTY AND SEVENTY YEARS AGO.

### Fifth Article.

VISIT TO DR. DWIGHT'S SCHOOL AT GREENFIELD HILL, FAIRFIELD, CT.\*

BOSTON, July 13th, 1790.

ON my way to this place I stopped at the house of the Rev. Mr. —† in Connecticut. My acquaintance with him began at Cambridge during the late war, and I was very happy to renew it. He now teaches an academy consisting of sixteen boys, most of whom board in his family. He prevailed upon me to rest at his house two days, both of which I spent in the most agreeable manner. I was pleased with the order of his family. His wife is a pleasant, sensible woman, and he has three promising children. But I was principally struck with his manner of *teaching*, and his behavior to his scholars. By particular invitation I went into his school, where I met only six of his boys. The rest were getting their lessons under trees on different parts of his farm. The six boys just mentioned composed a class. They were learning geography. Never did I hear this science taught in such an agreeable manner. The whole class sat down before him, and the lecture was after the manner of a conversation. The teacher entertained them with anecdotes of places, picked up from modern travels, all of which were new to me, and extremely interesting to young people. The class asked him questions, which he answered with ease and politeness. In short, I began to think I saw the father of a family talking to his children, rather than a schoolmaster instructing his boys. After this class was dismissed a second was called, who said a lesson in the same easy manner upon the history of England. A third class concluded the exercises of the forenoon by exhibiting specimens of their skill in a very common and useful species of composition. They had been made to correspond with each other, and their letters were examined with the most scrupulous exactness by their master in grammar, punctuation, the proper place for capitals, and in perspicuity of expression. I recollect he found fault with only one of this class, and that was for not placing dots over the *i* and strokes across the *t* as often as those letters occurred in his performance. Such omissions, he said, betray haste and carelessness, and lead gradually to the writing of a slovenly and unintelligible hand.

On the afternoon of the second day I spent with this excellent man his whole school accompanied him into his meadow, where they assisted him in hauling home his hay, and securing it in his barnyard. In our walk home, after the

\* Extract from a letter written "to a friend in Wilmington, Delaware," and published in the *Universal Asylum and Columbian Magazine*, (Phil.) for Sept., 1790, under the title of "Improved Mode of Education."

† The blank in this letter can probably be filled with the name of Rev. Timothy Dwight, who had the most remarkable private academy in New England, at Greenfield Hill in the town of Fairfield, on the post-road between New York and Boston, between the years 1783 and 1795.

work of the day was over, he gave his boys a lecture upon the different kinds of grasses; he mentioned the time of the first use of each of them in agriculture, the best methods of cultivating them, and the different kinds that were most proper for different animals. The conversation at meals was truly delightful and instructing. It would fill a small volume to mention all the new and useful observations which fell from him at his table, all of which were calculated to improve the understandings, or better the hearts of his pupils. I shall only mention one thing which struck me very agreeably. He read a chapter in the New Testament every morning, and one in the Old Testament every evening, as part of family worship. After reading a chapter in the evening, he explained the meaning of many of the ceremonies of the Jewish church, and showed their fulfillment in the history of our Saviour, or in some of the doctrines of Christianity. The next evening he examined his scholars upon the subject of the preceding lecture. Their answers were extremely pertinent and satisfactory. A better mode could not be devised to instruct young people in the Christian religion, or to furnish them with arguments against the deists.

Before I parted with my kind host, I asked him whether he had adopted the idea of Dr. Franklin, Dr. Rush, and others, respecting the inutility of the dead languages. He told me that he had adopted it in part, but that the prejudices of his countrymen forbade his banishing those languages entirely from his school. He said that he had discovered a new way of teaching them, and that none of his boys ever spent more than two years in learning them. He added, that he thought the time was coming when it would be as absurd to teach the Latin and Greek languages indiscriminately in our schools, as it would now be to navigate a vessel by coasting instead of a magnet. \* \* \*

#### "BOARDING ROUND" IN VERMONT.

We make the following extract from a little pamphlet, illustrative of the life of a country schoolmaster in Vermont, when "boarding round" was practiced.

*Monday.*—Went to board at Mr. B——'s; had a baked gander for dinner; suppose from its size, the thickness of the skin and other venerable appearances, to have been one of the first settlers of Vermont; made a slight impression on the patriarch's breast. Supper—cold gander and potatoes; family consisting of the man, good wife, daughter Peggy, four boys, Pompey the dog, and a brace of cats; fire built in the square room about nine o'clock, and a pile of wood lay by the fireplace; saw Peggy scratch her fingers, and couldn't take the hint; felt squeamish about the stomach, and talked of going to bed; Peggy looked sullen, and put out the fire in the square room; went to bed, and dreamed of having eaten a quantity of stone wall.

*Tuesday.*—Cold gander for breakfast, swamp tea and some nut cake—the latter some consolation. Dinner—the legs, &c., of the gander, done up warm—one nearly dispatched. Supper—the other leg, &c., cold; went to bed as Peggy was carrying in the fire to the square room; dreamed I was a mud turtle, and got on my back and could not get over again.

*Wednesday.*—Cold gander for breakfast; complained of sickness, and could eat nothing. Dinner—wings, &c., of the gander warmed up; did my best to destroy them, for fear they should be left for supper; did not succeed; dreaded supper all the afternoon. Supper—hot Johnny cakes; felt greatly revived; thought I had got clear of the gander, and went to bed for a good night's rest; disappointed; very cool night, and couldn't keep warm in bed; got up and stopped the broken window with my coat and vest; no use; froze the tip of my nose and one ear before morning.

*Thursday.*—Cold gander again; felt much discouraged to see the gander not half gone; went visiting for dinner and supper; slept abroad, and had pleasant dreams.

*Friday.*—Breakfast abroad. Dinner at Mr. B——'s; cold gander and hot potatoes—the latter very good; ate three, and went to school quite contented. Supper—cold gander and no potatoes, bread heavy and dry; had the headache and couldn't eat; Peggy much concerned; had a fire built in the square room, and thought she and I had better sit there out of the noise; went to bed early; Peggy thought too much sleep bad for the headache.

*Saturday.*—Cold gander and hot Indian Johnny cake; did very well, glad to come off so. Dinner—cold gander again; didn't keep school this afternoon; weighed and found I had lost six pounds the last week; grew alarmed; had a talk with Mr. B——, and concluded I had boarded out his share.

#### REMINISCENCES OF SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS IN WILMINGTON, DELAWARE.

The following extracts from Miss Elizabeth Montgomery's "Reminiscences of Wilmington," (Del.,) published in 1851, were copied and forwarded by Miss M. S. Gilpin:—

The next place of note was an humble Methodist meeting-house, founded by a meek and lowly people, who would shudder at the Popish name of a *church*, though they did decorate it with evergreens on Christmas, and kept the day as a religious festival. It has been so often enlarged that hardly a relic of the original is left. Now it can vie with many buildings in large cities, and is called "Ashbury Church."

We must not pass this primitive place of worship without a tribute of respect to John Thelwell, its devoted patron from its early dawn, and (with his worthy wife) faithful unto death. It would be easier for us to say what he did not than to recount his numerous duties. He was a ruler, an exhorter, and an efficient class-leader with these people. He was clerk of the market too, and once he weighed a woman's butter which was wanting in balance, and was about to take away the basket. She being near-sighted, and he having but one eye, she took the advantage by daubing a pound in the other eye, and thus made off with her effects.

He held the office of bell-man from time immemorial as crier. Many at this day remember Daddy Thelwell and his big bell, tingling as he passed, and warning the burgesses to attend their meeting in the little town chamber over the end of the lower market-house. Those are yet living who heard the joyful sound of his old bell ringing in their ears, arousing them from repose, his voice echoing loud and long, "Cornwallia is taken!" Could you believe, after being faithful to all these duties, he should be a schoolmaster, and of some note, too!

The more ancient hornbook, scarcely now remembered, became out of use in this country, and ceased to be imported from England when we undertook to teach ourselves learning after the Revolution. It was soon below our expectations, for it only contained the alphabetic letters, the numerals and the Lord's Prayer. These, fastened on a small thin board, about the size of a small spelling-book page, were securely nailed to it with a strip of bright brass for a margin, and covered with a plate of horn so transparent as to render the text clearly to be read, yet fully defended from the unwashed fingers of the pupils. One of the British poets has immortalized this elementary guide to all the future learning of our advanced age:

Hail, ancient book, most venerable code,  
Learning's first cradle and its last abode;  
The huge unnumber'd volumes which we see,  
By lazy plagiarists are stolen from thee;

But future times to thy sufficient store  
 Shall ne'er presume to add one letter more.  
 Thee will I sing in homely wainscot bound.  
 The golden verge encompassing around,  
 The faithful *horn* in front from age to age  
 Preserving thy invaluable page.

But the intruding successor to teach the alphabet, spelling, reading and grammar, was Dilworth's spelling-book, with small print, like worn out newspaper type. The present generation would not now study such dim lights.

At the foot of Quaker Hill Mr. Thelwell had commenced teaching, but was soon promoted to the little senate chamber over the market-house, and this, at the corner of King and Third streets, was long his room. Most boys and girls were his pupils, at least during a part of their school-days. The boys' entrance was front, the girls' up an alley. Even in those *primitive days* there were some unruly children; but he adhered most strictly to the letter of Solomon's advice, and "never spared the rod." The rattan or ferule seemed to be in perpetual motion, and were as common in his seminary as gymnastics at this day, and woe to the boy mounted to receive the reward of his exploits or omissions! But wondrous strange if after such an exhibition he should return to school subdued. It can only be accounted for, that independence was not fully understood in the young Republic. Certainly it was not carried out as in this day.

The Bible was used for the senior class, and also Gough's Arithmetic, with sums in simple division that would fill a large slate, and puzzle many a brain, and cause showers of tears. This school was opened every morning by prayer and singing a hymn.

The village all declared how much he knew;  
 'Twas certain he could write and cipher too;  
 Lands he could measure, times and tides presage,  
 And e'en the story ran that he could guage.  
 But past is all his fame. The very spot  
 Where many a time he triumphed is forgot.

Miss Debby Thelwell, the eldest daughter, assisted and kept the girls in order; she was a very worthy woman, but with no literary pretensions. Miss Polly rarely entered; she was timid and more refined. After the father's death the sisters united and taught young children for many years, until this worthy family were removed by death from useful employment.

On the northeast corner of Second street was a school of long standing for girls—

There, in her noisy mansion, skilled to rule,  
 The village mistress taught her little school;  
 Well had the boding tremblers learned to trace  
 The day's disasters in her morning face.

Mrs. Elizabeth Way was a celebrated teacher of needle-work, so important for misses in those times that even the art of shirt-making was strictly attended to, and fitting and cutting were taught here with neatness and care. Most of the older females, brought up in this town, have been her pupils.

Mrs. Way was a very respectable and worthy woman; she had received an education superior to most women of her day, and was endowed with a strong mind and strict principles of morality, yet an irritable temper was a drawback to her usefulness, and it was annoying to some of her pupils. She was a disci-



plinarian of the old school, and strictly adhered to the wise king's advice. A bunch of switches or cat-o'-ninetails were freely used to correct the naughty.

Leather spectacles were worn for slighted work. Much attention was paid to the position, for if the head leaned down, Jamestown-weed burs strung on tape were ready for a necklace, or if a person stooped, a steele was at hand. This was the length of the waist, and held up the chin by a piece extending round the neck, and a strap confined it down. It was not very comfortable to the wearer, though fitted to make the "crooked ways straight," but a morocco spider worn on the back, confined to the shoulders by a belt, was more usual.

The celebrated painter, Benjamin West, had been the companion of Mrs. Way's childhood and youth. As absent friends, they kept up a correspondence in age, and it seemed much pleasure to her to relate anecdotes of his early days.

Isaac Hendrickson, of Swedish descent, and then one of the most respectable shipping merchants, married her only daughter, a handsome and lovely woman, and highly esteemed. He owned the opposite corner where they lived. Mrs. Way was aged, and had declined teaching to live with her daughter. Her only son, a young physician, was also an inmate of this family. Mrs. H. and the Doctor both fell victims to the yellow fever of 1798. This sore calamity "brought down her gray hairs in sorrow to the grave."

#### SCHOOL LIFE IN RHODE ISLAND.

Dr. Channing thus describes the discipline of the dame school of his boyhood in Newport, R. I., (1780-1794:)

"I was a little amused with the objection which you say the —s made to your proposed school, that you want those essential qualifications of a teacher —gray hairs and spectacles. This objection brought back to my mind the venerable schoolmistress under whose care my infant faculties were unfolded. She, indeed, would have suited the —s to a hair. Her nose was peculiarly privileged and honored, for it bore *two* spectacles. The locks which strayed from her close mob-cap were most evidently the growth of other times. She sat in a large easy-chair, and, unlike the insect forms of modern days, she filled the capacious seat. Her title was *Madam*, a title which she exclusively enjoyed. When we entered her door we kissed our hands, and *Madam* was the first word which escaped our lips. But I would not have you suppose that there was nothing but a title, and spectacles, and gray locks to insure our respect. *Madam* was wiser than the —s. She did not trust chiefly to age. On the right arm of her easy-chair there reclined what to common eyes appeared only a long, round stick; but so piercing was its vision, so quick its hearing, so rapid its motions, so suddenly did it reach the whispering or idle delinquent, that Ovid, had he known it, would have been strongly tempted to trace it, by many a strange metamorphosis, back to Argus, or some other watchful, sleepless being of ancient mythology. We, trembling wights, were satisfied with feeling, and had no curiosity to explore its hidden properties. Do you ask where this mysterious wand is to be found? I fear it is irrecoverably lost. The storm of revolution, which has so lately passed over us, not contented with breaking the sceptres and hurling down the thrones of monarchs, burst into the school-room, and *Madam's* title and rod were swept away in the general desolation."

As he grew older William was advanced to the boarding and day school of Mr. Rogers, which was considered the best in the town, and indeed had so high a reputation, that boys from a distance, especially from the South, were sent to his charge. It was the habit of that time to use flogging as the common penalty, and no master would then have responded, as all good ones must now do, to the words of Vogel:—"When we teachers become fully competent to our work the necessity of corporeal punishment will cease altogether." This is

mentioned because it is certain that what he then experienced outraged his sensitive honor, and served to arouse the feeling of indignation against any form of violence used toward children which grew so strong in him in later years. He would often tell an anecdote of a little boy in school trying to shield with his arms a larger one whom the master was about to whip. The contrast of the great heart with the small physical power, the noble position of the young remonstrant against tyranny, produced an indelible impression upon his childish imagination, and made the severity of the teacher and the quarreling of the children detestable and hideous.\*

Judge Story, in a letter to the biographer of Dr. Channing on the influence which surrounded that eminent man in his college career at Harvard between 1794 and 1798, writes:

You express a desire "to obtain some general views of the circumstances under which the students lived." I believe that this can be best done by giving you a brief sketch of the state of college, and the relation which the students had with the existing college government. Things are so much changed since that it is somewhat difficult to realize all the influences which then surrounded them. In the first place as to the course of studies. It was far more confined and limited than at present. In Greek we studied Xenophon's *Anabasis* and a few books of the *Iliad*; in Latin, Sallust and a few books of Livy; in Mathematics, Saunderson's *Algebra* and a work on *Arithmetic*; in Natural Philosophy, Enfield's *Natural Philosophy* and Ferguson's *Astronomy*; in Rhetoric, an abridgment of Blair's *Lectures* and the article on Rhetoric in the "Preceptor;" in Metaphysics, Watt's *Logic* and Locke on the *Human Understanding*; in History, Millot's *Elements*; in Theology, Doddridge's *Lectures*; in grammatical studies, Lowth's *Grammar*. I believe this is near the whole, if not the whole, course of our systematical studies. The college library was at that time far less comprehensive and suited to the wants of students than at present. It was not as easily accessible, and, indeed, was not frequented by them. No modern language was taught except French, and that only one day in the week by a non-resident instructor.

The means of knowledge from external sources was very limited. The intercourse between us and foreign countries was infrequent, and I might almost say that we had no means of access to any literature and science except the English. Even in respect to this we had little more than a semi-annual importation of the most common works, and a few copies supplied and satisfied the market. The English periodicals were then few in number, and I do not remember any one that was read by the students except the *Monthly Magazine*, (the old *Monthly*), and that was read but by a few. I have spoken of our semi-annual importations, and it is literally true, that two ships only plied as regular packets between Boston and London, one in the Spring and one in the Autumn, and their arrival was an era in our college life.

In respect to academical intercourse the students had literally none that was not purely official except with each other. The different classes were almost strangers to each other, and cold reserve generally prevailed between them. The system of "fagging" (as it was called) was just then dying out, and I believe that my own class was the first that was not compelled to perform this drudgery at the command of the Senior class in the most humble services. The students had no connection whatsoever with the inhabitants of Cambridge by private social visits. There was none between the families of the president and professors of the college and the students. The *régime* of the old school in manners and habits then prevailed. The president and professors were never approached except in the most formal way and upon official occasions; and in the college yard (if I remember rightly) no student was permitted to be with his hat on if one of the professors was there.

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\* Memoir of William Ellery Channing, Vol. I., p. 44.

## VII. ENGLISH PEDAGOGY—OLD AND NEW.

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### CHARLES HOOLE.

CHARLES HOOLE, an eminent schoolmaster in his day, and the author of at least twenty-four contributions to the pedagogical literature of the English language, was born in Wakefield, Yorkshire, in 1610. After receiving his elementary training in the free school of his native place under Robert Doughtie, a Cantabrigian of high reputation, he proceeded at the age of eighteen to Lincoln College, Oxford, on the advice of his kinsman, Dr. Robert Sanderson, where he earned the reputation of a superior scholar in the Latin, Greek and Hebrew languages, and in philosophy. After receiving the degree of bachelor of arts, he commenced teaching in 1633 in Lincolnshire, and in Rotherham, Yorkshire, and acquired from the start considerable note in his vocation, and about 1649 he was invited to London by several noted citizens to start a private grammar school, first in Redcross Lane, and afterward (1651) in Token House Garden in Lothbury near the Royal Exchange, where, according to Wood, "the generality of the youth under him were instructed to a miracle." He afterward removed to Montmouthshire on the urgent request of some of his old London patrons, but not being satisfied with the result, he accepted a prebendship in the church in Lincoln offered him by Bishop Sanderson, and soon after became rector of Stock Billerica, near Chelmsford in Essex, where he died March 7, 1666, and "was buried in the chancel of the church, under an arch in the wall, near the communion table," according to Wood.

Mr. Hoole published in 1633 "*Pueriles Confabulationunculæ, &c.*;" in 1637 he composed "*The Usher's Duty; or a Platform of Teaching Lily's Grammar,*" and "*The New Discovery of the Old Art of Teaching,*" which were printed in 1659, together with a little treatise entitled "*The Petty-Schoole*"—which together throw more light on the old and the improved methods of teaching, than any one publication of that period which has come to our notice. In 1653 he published "*Phraseological Pueriles, &c.*;" and in 1654 his "*Grammar in Latin and English in four parts,*" first intended

for the use of his private grammar school, but which passed through several editions on the recommendation of Dr. Sanderson and others, of being "the shortest, orderliest, and plainest, for ease both of master and scholars, that has been then extant."

Hoole was one of the pioneer educators of his century; with others, he labored to improve the elementary school by composing and publishing a "Plain and Easy Primer for Children wherein the Pictures of Beasts and Birds for each Letter in the Alphabet are set down, &c.," and by translating and publishing in 1659 the "*Orbis Sensualium Pictus*" of Comenius, under the title of "The Visible World; or a Picture or Nomenclature of all the Chief Things that are in the World, and of Men's Employments therein"—"adorned with pictures, to make children understand it the better." The preface anticipates many of the arguments advanced two hundred years later in favor of Object Teaching, as will be seen by these extracts.

*The Cultivation of Perception and Conception.*—"The ground of this business is, that sensual objects may be rightly presented to the senses, for fear they may not be received. I say, and say it again aloud, that this last is the foundation of all the rest. Now there is nothing in the understanding which was not before in the sense; and therefore to exercise the senses well about the right perceiving the differences of things, will be to lay the grounds for all wisdom and all wise discourse; which, because it is commonly neglected in schools, and the things which are to be learned are offered to scholars without being understood or being rightly presented to the senses, it cometh to pass that the work of teaching and learning goeth heavily onward, and affordeth little benefit."

*The Understanding to be cultivated as well as the Memory.*—"For to pack up many words in memory, of things not conceived in the mind, is to fill the head with empty imaginations, and to make the learner more to admire the multitude and variety, and thereby to become discouraged, than to care to treasure them up, in hopes to gain more knowledge of what they mean. Descend to the very bottom of what is taught, and proceed as nature itself doth, in an orderly way; first to exercise the senses well, by representing their objects to them, and then to fasten upon the intellect, by impressing the first notions of things upon it, and linking them one to another by a rational discourse. Missing this way, we do teach children as we do parrots, to speak they know not what."

*Lessons with real Objects.*—"Since some things can not be *pictured out* with ink, for this reason it were to be wished, that things rare, and not easy to be met with withal at home, might be kept ready in every great school, that they may be showed also, as often as any words are to be made of them to the scholars. Thus at last this school would indeed become a school of things obvious to the senses, and an entrance to the school intellectual." Is not the germ of Pestalozzianism here? The words "*pictured out*" are put in italics by ourselves to call attention to the old use of this now popular phrase.

*Use of Pictorial Illustrations.*—"Pictures are the representations of all visible things of the whole world. Such a dress may entice witty children, that they may not conceit a torment to be in the school. For it is apparent that children,

even from their infancy almost, are delighted with pictures. And it will be very well worth the pains to have brought to pass, that scare-crows may be taken away out of Wisdom's gardens."

*Use of Blackboard.*—But little is said on this piece of school apparatus. It is, however, interesting to know that in a description of a school, written two centuries since, this useful adjunct for illustration is noticed. Comenius says: "Some things are writ down before them with *chalk* on a table. This notice would not have been so satisfactory as it is, but there accompanies the description a "copper cut," and there we see upon the wall a blackboard, as large as a window, with a diagram chalked upon it.

On the point of *illustration* we may add, "The judgment of Mr. Hezekiah Woodward, sometime an eminent schoolmaster in London. Certainly the use of images or representations is great; if we could make our words as legible to children as pictures are, their information therefrom would be quickened and surer. But so we can not do, though we must do what we can."

*Masters must have Sympathy with the capacities of the children under Instruction.* "A schoolmaster had need to bend his wits to come within the compass of a child's capacities of six or seven years of age, and to make that they may learn with as much delight and willingness, as himself would teach with dexterity and ease. And because any good thing is the better, being the more communicated, I have herein *imitated a child*, who is forward to impart to others what himself has well liked."

*Phonic Method of Teaching to Read.*—"It will afford a device for learning to read more easily than heretofore, especially having a symbolical alphabet set before it, to wit, the characters of the several letters, with the image of that creature whose voice that letter goeth about to imitate, pictured by it. For the young *a b c* scholar will easily remember the *force* of every character by the very looking at the creature, till the imagination being strengthened by use, can readily afford all things."

It may be necessary to explain, that what Comenius calls the "force of every character" is obtained from *verbs* denoting the actions of animals, instead of from *nouns* as is now the general practice. A series of "copper cuts" is given for this purpose, called "A lively and vocal Alphabet."

*Tasks and Training.*—"Because the first tasks of learners ought to be little and single, we have filled this first book of *training* one up to see a thing of himself, with nothing but rudiments, that is, with the chief of things and words, or with the grounds of the whole world, and the whole language, and of all our understanding about things." The reader will observe that the word "training" is used in precisely the same sense as by modern educationists.

*The Uselessness of bare Rules of Grammar.*—"You that have the care of little children, do not trouble their thoughts and clog their memories with bare grammar rudiments, which to them are harsh in getting, and fluid in retaining; because, indeed, to them they signify nothing, but a mere swimming notion of a general term, which they know not what it meaneth, till they comprehend particulars. For rules, consisting of generalities, are delivered, as I may say, at the third hand, presuming first the things and then the words to be already apprehended, touching which they are made."

*Teacher's entire Dependence upon God's Blessing.*—"And I pray God, the fountain and giver of all wisdom, that hath bestowed upon us this gift of teaching

so to inspire and direct us by his grace, that we may train up children in his fear, and in the knowledge of His Son Jesus Christ our Lord; and then, no doubt, our teaching, and their learning of other things subordinate to these, will by the assistance of His Blessed Spirit make them able and willing to do Him faithful service both in Church and Commonwealth, as long as they live here, that so they may be eternally blessed with Him hereafter. This I beseech you beg for me and mine, as I shall daily do for you and yours, at the throne of God's heavenly grace; and remain while I live ready to serve you, as I truly love and honor you, and labor willingly in the same profession with you.

From my school in Lothbury, London, Jan. 25th, 1658.

CHARLES HOOLE."



## THE PETTY SCHOOL.\*

BY CHARLES HOOLE, A. M.,

Master of Grammar School at Rotherham in 1636, and of a Private School in London in 1660

### CHAPTER I.—*How a child may be helped in the first pronunciation of his letters.*

My aim being to discover the old Art of Teaching School, and how it may be improved in every part suitable to the years and capacities of such children as are now commonly taught, I shall first begin my discourse concerning a Petty School; and here or elsewhere I shall not busy myself or reader about what a child of an extraordinary towardliness, and having a teacher at home, may attain unto, and in how short a space, but only show how a multitude of various wits may be taught all together with abundance of profit and delight to every one, which is the proper and main work of our ordinary schools.

Whereas, then, it is usual in cities and greater towns to put children to school about four or five years of age, and in country villages, because of further distance, not till about six or seven, I conceive the sooner a child is put to school the better it is, both to prevent ill habits which are got by play and idleness, and to inure him betimes to affect learning and well doing. Not to say, how the great uncertainty of parents' lives should make them careful of their children's early education, which is like to be the best part of their patrimony, whatever good thing else they may leave them in this world.

I observe that betwixt three and four years of age a child hath great propensity to peep into a book, and then is the most seasonable time (if conveniences may be had otherwise) for him to begin to learn; and though perhaps then he can not speak so very distinctly, yet the often pronunciation of his letters will be a means to help his speech, especially if one take notice in what organ or instrument he is most defective, and exercise him chiefly in those letters which belong unto it.

Now there are five organs or instruments of speech, in the right hitting of

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\* The following is a copy of the original title page:—

THE  
PETTY-SCHOOLE.  
SHEWING  
A way to teach little  
Children to read English with  
delight and profit, (especially)  
according to  
the New Primar.  
By C. H.  
LONDON,  
Printed by F. T. for Andrew Crook  
at the Green Dragon in Pauls  
Church Yard, 1639.

which, as the breath moveth from within through the mouth, a true pronunciation of every letter is made, viz., the lips, the teeth, the tongue, the roof of the mouth, and the throat; according to which if one rank the twenty-four letters of our English alphabet, he shall find that A, E, I, O, U proceed by degrees from the throat, along betwixt the tongue and the roof of the mouth to the lips contracted, and that Y is somewhat like I, being pronounced with other letters; but if it be named by itself, it requireth some motion of the lips. B, F, M, P, W, and V consonants belong to the lips, C, S, X, Z to the teeth, D, L, N, T, R to the tongue, B, H, K, Q to the roof of the mouth. But the sweet and natural pronunciation of them is gotten rather by imitation than precept, and therefore the teacher must be careful to give every letter its distinct and clear sound, that the child may get it from his voice, and be sure to make the child open his mouth well as he uttereth a letter, lest otherwise he drown or hinder the sound of it. For I have heard some foreigners to blame us Englishmen for neglecting this mean to a plain and audible speaking, saying, that the cause why we generally do not speak so fully as they, proceeded from an ill habit of mumbling, which children got at their first learning to read, which it was their care therefore to prevent or remedy betimes, and so it should be ours, seeing pronunciation is that that sets out a man, and is sufficient of itself to make one an orator.

II.—*How a child may be taught with delight to know all his letters in a very little time.*

The usual way to begin with a child, when he is first brought to school, is to teach him to know his letters in the hornbook, where he is made to run over all the letters in the alphabet or Christ-cross-row, both forward and backward, until he can tell any one of them which is pointed at, and that in the English character.

This course we see hath been very effectual in a short time with some more ripe-witted children; but others of a slower apprehension (as the most and best commonly are) have been thus learning a whole year together, and though they have been much chid and beaten too for want of heed, could scarce tell six of their letters at twelve months' end, who, if they had been taught in a way more agreeable to their mean apprehensions, (which might have wrought more readily upon the senses, and affected their minds with what they did,) would doubtless have learned as cheerfully if not as fast as the quickest.

I shall therefore mention sundry ways that have been taken to make a child know his letters readily, out of which the discreet teacher may choose what is most likely to suit with his learner.

I have known some that (according to Mr. Brinsley's direction) have taught little ones to pronounce all the letters, and to spell pretty well before they knew one letter in a book; and this they did, by making the child to sound the five vowels, *a, e, i, o, u*, like so many bells upon his finger's ends, and to say which finger was such or such a vowel, by changes; then putting single consonants before the vowels, (leaving the hardest of them till the last,) and teaching him how to utter them both at once, as *va, ve, vi, vo, vu, da, de, di, do, du*; and again, by putting the vowels before a consonant, to make him say, *as, es, is, os, us, ad, ed, id, od, ud*. Thus they have proceeded from syllables of two or three, or more letters, till a child hath been pretty nimble in the most. But this is rather to be done in a private house than a public school; however this man-

ner of exercise now and then amongst little scholars will make their lessons more familiar to them.

The greatest trouble at the first entrance of children is to teach them how to know their letters one from another when they see them in the book altogether; for the greatness of their number and variety of shape do puzzle young wits to difference them, and the sense can but be intent upon one single object at once, so as to take its impression and commit it to the imagination and memory. Some have therefore begun but with one single letter, and after they have showed it to the child in the alphabet, have made him to find the same any where else in the book till he knew that perfectly; and then they have proceeded to another in like manner, and so gone through the rest.

Some have contrived a piece of ivory with twenty-four flats or squares, in every one of which was engraven a several letter, and by playing with a child in throwing this upon a table, and showing him the letter only which lay uppermost, have in a few days taught him the whole alphabet.

Some have got twenty-four pieces of ivory cut in the shape of dice, with a letter engraven upon each of them, and with these they have played at vacant hours with a child till he hath known them all distinctly. They begin first with one, then with two, afterwards with more letters at once as the child got knowledge of them. To teach him likewise to spell, they would place consonants before or after a vowel, and then join more letters together so as to make a word, and sometimes divide it into syllables, to be parted or put together. Now this kind of letter sport may be profitably permitted among beginners in a school, and instead of ivory, they may have white bits of board, or small shreds of paper or pasteboard, or parchment with a letter written upon each to play withal amongst themselves.

Some have made pictures in a little book, or upon a scroll of paper wrapped upon two sticks within a box of isinglass, and by each picture have made three sorts of that letter with which its name beginneth; but those being too many at once for a child to take notice of, have proved not so useful as was intended. Some likewise have had pictures and letters printed in this manner on the backside of a pack of cards to entice children, that naturally love that sport, to the love of learning their books.

Some have written a letter in a great character upon a card, or chalked it out upon a trencher, and by telling a child what it was, and letting him strive to make the like, have imprinted it quickly in his memory, and so the rest one after another.

One having a son of two years and a half old, that could but even go about the house, and utter some few gibberish words in a broken manner, observing him one day above the rest to be busied about shells and sticks, and such like toys, which himself had laid together in a chair, and to miss any one that was taken from him he saw not how, and to seek for it about the house, became very desirous to make experiment what that child might presently attain to in point of learning. Thereupon he devised a little wheel, with all the capital Roman letters made upon a paper to wrap round about it, and fitted it to turn in a little round box, which had a hole so made in the side of it, that only one letter might be seen to peep out at once. This he brought to the child, and showed him only the letter O, and told him what it was. The child being overjoyed with his new gambol, catcheth the box out of his father's hand, and runs with

it to his playfellow a year younger than himself, and in his broken language tells him there was "an O, an O." And when the other asked him where, he said, "In a hole, in a hole," and showed it him; which the lesser child then took such notice of, as to know it again ever after from all the other letters. And thus by playing with the box, and inquiring concerning any letter that appeared strange to him what it was, the child learned all the letters of the alphabet in eleven days, being in this A B C character, and would take pleasure to show them in any book to any of his acquaintance that came next. By this instance you may see what a propensity there is in nature betimes to learning, could but the teachers apply themselves to their young scholars' tenuity; and how by proceeding in a clear and facile method that all may apprehend, every one may benefit more or less by degrees. According to these contrivances to forward children, I have published a *New Primer*; in the first leaf whereof I have set the Roman capitals, (because that character is now most in use, and those letters the most easy to be learned,) and have joined therewith the pictures or images of some things whose names begin with that letter, by which a child's memory may be helped to remember how to call his letters, as A for an ape, B for a bear, &c. This hieroglyphical device doth so affect children, (who are generally forward to communicate what they know,) that I have observed them to teach others, that could not so readily learn, to know all the letters in a few hours' space, by asking them what A stands for? and so concerning other letters backward and forward, or as they best liked.

Thus when a child hath got the names of his letters, and their several shapes withal in a playing manner, he may be easily taught to distinguish them in the following leaf, which containeth first the greater and then the small Roman characters, to be learned by five at once or more, as the child is able to remember them; other characters I would have forborne till one be well acquainted with these, because so much variety at the first doth but amaze young wits, and our English characters (for the most part) are very obscure, and more hard to be imprinted in the memory. And thus much for learning to know letters; we shall next (and according to order in teaching) proceed to an easy way of distinct spelling.

### III.—How to teach a child to spell distinctly.

The common way of teaching a child to spell is, after he knows the letters in his alphabet, to initiate him in those few syllables, which consist of one vowel before a consonant, as *ab, eb, ib, ob, ub, &c.*, or of one vowel after a consonant, as *ba, be, bi, bo, bu, &c.*, in the hornbook, and thence to proceed with him by little and little to the bottom of the book, hearing him twice or thrice over till he can say his lesson, and then putting him to a new one.

In which course I have known some more apt children to have profited pretty well, but scarce one of ten, when they have gone through the book, to be able to spell a word that is not in it. And some have been certain years daily exercised saying lessons therein, who, after much endeavor spent, have been accounted mere blockheads, and rejected altogether as incapable to learn any thing; whereas, some teachers that have assayed a more familiar way, have professed that they have not met with any such thing as a dunce amid a great multitude of little scholars.

Indeed, it is Tully's observation of old, and Erasmus' assertion of later years,

that it is as natural for a child to learn, as it is for a beast to go, a bird to fly, or a fish to swim, and I verily believe it; for the nature of man is restlessly desirous to know things, and were discouragements taken out of the way, and meet help afforded young learners, they would doubtless go on with a great deal more cheerfulness, and make more proficiency at their books than usually they do. And could the master have the discretion to make their lessons familiar to them, children would as much delight in being busied about them, as in any other sport, if too long continuance at them might not make them tedious.

Amongst those that have gone a readier way to reading, I shall only mention Mr. Roe and Mr. Robinson, the latter of whom I have known to have taught little children not much above four years old to read distinctly in the Bible, in six weeks' time or under; their books are to be had in print, but every one hath not the art to use them. And Mr. Coote's *English Schoolmaster* seems rather to be fitted for one that is a master indeed than for a scholar.

Besides the way then which is usual, you may (if you think good) make use of that which I have set down in the *New Primer* to help little ones to spell readily, and it is this:

1. Let a child be well acquainted with his vowels, and made to pronounce them fully by themselves, because they are able to make a perfect sound alone.

2. Teach him to give the true value or force of the consonants, and to take notice how imperfectly they sound, except a vowel be joined with them. Both these are set apart by themselves.

3. Proceed to syllables made of one consonant set before a vowel, (section 5,) and let him join the true force of the consonant with the perfect sound of the vowel, as to say *ba, be, bi, bo, bu*, &c. Yet it were good to leave *ca, ce, ci, co, cu*, and *ga, ge, gi, go, gu*, to the last, because the value of the consonant in the second and third syllables doth differ from that in the rest.

4. Then exercise him in syllables made of one vowel set before one consonant, (section 6,) as to say *ab, eb, ib, ob, ub*, &c., till he can spell any syllable of two letters backward or forward, as *ba, be, bi, bo, bu; ab, eb, ib, ob, ub; ba, ab; be, eb; bi, ib; bo, ob; bu, ub*; and so in all the rest, comparing one with another.

5. And if to any one of these syllables you add a letter, and teach him how to join it in sound with the rest, you will make him more ready in spelling; as if before *ab* you put *b*, and teach him to say *bab*; if after *ba* you put *d*, and let him pronounce it *bad*, he will quickly be able to join a letter with any of the rest, as *nip, pin, but, tub*, &c.

To inure your young scholar to any, even the hardest syllable, in an easy way,

1. Practice him in the joining of consonants that begin syllables (section 7) so that he may give their joint forces at once; thus

Having showed him to sound *bl* or *br* together, make him pronounce them, and a vowel with them, *bla, bra, ble, bre*, and so in any of the rest.

2. Then practice him likewise in consonants that end syllables, (section 8;) make him first to give the force of the joined consonants, and then to put the vowels before them; as *ble* with the vowels before them sound *able, eble, ible, oble, uble*, to all of which you may prefix other consonants and change them into words of one syllable, as *fable, peble, bible, noble, bubble*, with a *b* inserted or the like. Where observe that *e* in the end of many syllables, being silent, doth qualify the sound of the foregoing vowel, so as to make words different from

those that have not *e*; as you may see *made* differeth quite from *mad*, *bete* from *bet*, *pipe* from *pip*, *sops* from *sop*, and *cube* from *cub*. Whereby I think them in an error that leave out *e* in the end of words, and them that in pronouncing it make two syllables of one, in *stable*, *bible*, *people*, &c., which judicious Mr. Mulcaster will not allow.

In this exercise of spelling you may do well sometimes to make all the young beginners stand together, and pose them one by one in all sorts of syllables, till they be perfect in any; and to make them delight therein,

1. Let them spell many syllables together which differ only in one letter, as *and*, *band*, *hand*, *land*, *sand*.

2. Teach them to frame any word of one syllable, by joining any of the consonants which go before vowels, with those that are used to follow vowels, and putting in vowels betwixt them, as *black*, *block*; *clack*, *clock*.

And this they may do afterward amongst themselves, having several loose letters made and given them to compose or divide in a sporting manner, which I may rightly term the letter sport.

When a child has become expert in joining consonants with the vowels, then take him to the diphthongs, (section 9,) and there

1. Teach him the natural force of a diphthong, (which consists of two vowels joined together,) and make him sound it distinctly by itself, as *ae*, *ei*, &c.

2. Let him see how it is joined with other letters, and learn to give its pronunciation with them, minding him how the same diphthong differs from itself sometimes in its sound, and which of the two vowels in it hath the greatest power in pronunciation, as in *people*, *e* seemeth to drown the *a*.

And besides those words in the book, you may add others of your own, till by many examples the child doth well apprehend your meaning, so that he can boldly adventure to imitate you, and practice himself.

Thus after a child is thoroughly exercised in the true sounding of the vowels and consonants together, let him proceed to the spelling of words, first of one syllable, (section 10,) then of two, (section 11,) then of three, (section 12,) then of four, (section 13,) in all of which let him be taught how to utter every syllable by itself truly and fully, and be sure to speak out the last. But in words of more syllables, let him learn and part them according to these profitable rules:

1. An English syllable may sometimes consist of eight letters, but never of more, as *strength*.

2. In words that have many syllables, the consonant between two vowels belongeth to the latter of them, as *hu-mi-li-tie*.

3. Consonants which are joined in the beginning of words are not to be parted in the middle of them, as *my-ste-ry*.

4. Consonants which are not joined in the beginning of words are to be parted in the middle of them, as *for-get-ful-ness*.

5. If a consonant be doubled in the middle of a word, the first belongs to the foregoing syllable, and the latter to the following, as *pos-ses-si-on*.

6. In compound words, every part which belongeth to the single words must be set by itself, as *in-a-bi-li-ty*.

And these rules have I here set down to inform the less skillful teacher how he is to guide his learner, than to puzzle a child about them, who is not yet so well able to comprehend them.



I have also divided those words in the book, to let children see how they ought to divide other polysyllable words, in which they must always be very careful (as I said) to sound out the last syllable very fully.

To enable a child the better to pronounce any word he meets withal in reading, I have set down some, more hard for pronunciation, (section 14,) in often reading over which he may be exercised to help his utterance; and the master may add more at his own discretion, till he see that his willing scholar doth not stick in spelling any, be it never so hard.

And that the child may not be amused with any thing in his book when he cometh to read, I would have him made acquainted with the pauses, (section 15,) with the figures, (section 16,) numeral letters, (section 17,) quotations (section 18) and abbreviations, (section 19,) which being but a work of a few hours' space, may easily be performed after he can readily spell, which when he can do, he may profitably be put to reading, but not before; for I observed it a great defect in some of Mr. Robinson's scholars, (whose way was to teach to read presently without any spelling at all,) that when they were at a loss about a word, they made an imperfect confused sound in giving the force of the consonants, which if they once missed, they knew not which way to help themselves to find what the word was; whereas, if after a child know his letters, he be taught to gather them into just syllables, and by the joining of syllables together to frame a word, (which as it is the most ancient, so certainly it is the most natural method of teaching,) he will soon be able, if he stick at any word in reading, by the naming of its letters and pronouncing of its syllables, to say what it is, and then he may boldly venture to read without spelling at all, touching the gaining of a habit whereof I shall proceed to say somewhat in the next chapter.

#### IV.—*How a child may be taught to read any English book perfectly.*

The ordinary way to teach children to read is, after they have got some knowledge of their letters, and a smattering of some syllables and words in the hornbook, to turn them into the A B C or Primer, and therein to make them name the letters and spell the words, till by often use they can pronounce (at least) the shortest words at the first sight.

This method takes with those of prompter wits; but many of more slow capacities, not finding any thing to affect and so make them heed what they learn, go on remissly from lesson to lesson, and are not much more able to read when they have ended their book than when they begun it. Besides, the A B C being now (I may say) generally thrown aside, and the ordinary Primer not printed, and the very fundamentals of Christian religion (which were wont to be contained in those books, and were commonly taught children at home by heart before they went to school) with sundry people (almost in all places) slighted, the matter which is taught in most books now in use is not so familiar to them, and therefore not so easy for children to learn.

But to hold still to the sure foundation, I have caused the Lord's Prayer, (section 20,) the Creed, (section 21,) and the Ten Commandments (section 23) to be printed in the Roman character, that a child having learned already to know his letters and how to spell, may also be initiated to read by them, which he will do the more cheerfully if he be also instructed at home to say them by heart.

As he reads these, I would have a child name what words he can at first sight, and what he can not, to spell them, and to take notice what pauses and numbers are in his lesson, and to go over them often, till he can tell any tittle in them, either in or without the book.

When he is thus well entered in the Roman character, I would have him made acquainted with the rest of the characters now in use, (section 23,) which will be easily done by comparing one with another, and reading over those sentences, psalms, thanksgivings, and prayers (which are printed in greater and less characters of sundry sorts) till he have them pretty well by heart.

Thus having all things which concern reading English made familiar to him, he may attain to a perfect habit of it, 1, by reading *The Single Psalter*; 2. *The Psalms in Meter*; 3. *The School of Good Manners*, or such other like easy books which may both profit and delight him. All of which I would wish he may read over at least thrice, to make the matter as well as the words leave an impression upon his mind. If any where he stick at any word (as seeming too hard) let him mark it with a pin, or the dint of his nail, and by looking upon it again he will remember it.

When he can read any whit readily, let him begin the Bible and read over the book of *Genesis* (and other remarkable histories in other places of Scripture which are most likely to delight him) by a chapter at a time; but acquaint him a little with the matter beforehand, for that will entice him to read it, and make him more observant of what he reads. After he hath read, ask him such general questions out of the story as are most easy for him to answer, and he will the better remember it. I have known some, that by hiring a child to read two or three chapters a day, and to get so many verses of it by heart, have made them admirable proficient, and that betimes, in the Scriptures, which was Timothy's excellency and his grandmother's great commendation. Let him now take liberty to exercise himself in any English book (so the matter of it be but honest) till he can perfectly read in any place of a book that is offered him; and when he can do this, I adjudge him fit to enter into a grammar school but not before.

For thus learning to read English perfectly, I allow two or three years' time, so that at seven or eight years of age a child may begin Latin.

V.—Wherein children, for whom the Latin tongue is thought to be unnecessary, are to be employed after they can read English well.

It is a fond conceit of many that have either not attained, or by their own negligence have utterly lost the use of the Latin tongue, to think it altogether unnecessary for such children to learn it as are intended for trades, or to be kept as drudges at home, or employed about husbandry. For first, there are few children but (in their playing years, and before they can be capable of any serious employment in the meanest calling that is) may be so far grounded in the Latin as to find that little smattering they have of it to be of singular use to them, both for the understanding of the English authors (which abound now-a-days with borrowed words) and the holding of discourse with a sort of men that delight to flaunt it in Latin.

Secondly, Besides I have heard it spoken to the great commendation of some countries where care is had for the well education of children, that every peasant (almost) is able to discourse with a stranger in the Latin tongue; and why

may not we here in England obtain the like praise if we did but, as they, continue our children at the Latin school till they be well acquainted with that language, and thereby better fitted for any calling.

Thirdly, And I am sorry to add, that the non-improvement of children's time after they can read English any whit well throweth open a gap to all loose kinds of behavior; for being then (as it is too commonly to be seen, especially with the poorer sort) taken from the school, and permitted to run wild, up and down, without any control, they adventure to commit all manner of lewdness, and so become a shame and dishonor to their friends and country.

If these or the like reasons therefore might prevail to persuade them that have a prejudice against Latin, I would advise that all children might be put to the grammar school so soon as they can read English well, and suffered to continue at it till some honest calling invite them thence; but if not, I would wish them rather to forbear it than to become there a hindrance to others, whose work it is to learn that profitable language. And that they may not squander away their time in idleness, it were good if they were put to a writing-school where they might be, first, helped to keep their English by reading a chapter (at least) once a day; and second, taught to write a fair hand; and thirdly, afterward exercised in arithmetic and such preparative arts as may make them completely fit to undergo any ordinary calling. And being thus trained up in a way of discipline, they will afterward prove more easily pliable to their master's commands.

Now, forasmuch as few grammar schools of note will admit children into them till they have learned their *Accidents*, the teaching of that book also becometh for the most part a work for a Petty School, where many that undertake to teach it, being altogether ignorant of the Latin tongue, do sordidly perform that task, and spend a great deal of time about it to little or no purpose. I would have that book therefore by such let alone and left to the grammar school as most fitting to be taught there only, because it is intended as an introduction of grammar to guide children in a way of reading, writing, and speaking Latin, and the teachers of the grammar art are most deeply concerned to make use of it for that end. And instead of the *Accidents*, which they do neither understand nor profit by, they may be benefited in reading orthodoxal catechisms and other books that may instruct them in the duties of a Christian, such as *The Practice of Piety*, *The Practice of Quietness*, *The Whole Duty of Man*; and afterward in other delightful books, of English history, as *The History of Queen Elizabeth*, or poetry, as *Herbert's Poems*, *Quart's Emblems*; and by this means they will gain such a habit and delight in reading as to make it their chief recreation when liberty is afforded them. And their acquaintance with good books will (by God's blessing) be a means so to sweeten their (otherwise sour) natures, that they may live comfortably towards themselves, and amiably converse with other persons.

Yet if the teacher of a Petty School have a pretty good understanding of the Latin tongue, he may the better adventure to teach the *Accidents*, and proceed in doing so with far more ease and profit to himself and learner, if he observe a sure method of grounding his children in the rudiments of grammar, and preparing them to speak and write familiar Latin, which I shall hereafter discover, having first set down somewhat how to remedy that defect in reading English with which the grammar schools are very much troubled, especially where there is not a good Petty School to discharge that work aforehand. And before I

proceed further, I will express my mind in the next two chapters touching the erecting of a Petty School, and how it may probably flourish by good order and discipline.

VI.—*Of the founding of a Petty School.*

The Petty School is the place where, indeed, the first principles of all religion and learning ought to be taught, and therefore rather deserveth that more encouragement should be given to the teachers of it than that it should be left as a work for poor women, or others whose necessities compel them to undertake it as a mere shelter from beggary.

Out of this consideration it is (perhaps) that some nobler spirits, whom God hath enriched with an overplus of outward means, have, in some places whereunto they have been by birth (or otherwise) related, erected Petty School-houses, and endowed them with yearly salaries; but those are so inconsiderate toward the maintenance of a master and his family, or so overcloyed with a number of free scholars to be taught for nothing, that few men of good parts will deign to accept of them, or continue at them for any while, and for this cause I have observed such weak foundations fall to nothing.

Yet if any one be desirous to contribute toward such an eminent work of charity my advice is, that he erect a school and dwelling-house together, about the middle of a market town, or some populous country village, and accommodate it with a safe yard adjoining to it, if not with an orchard or garden, and that he endow it with a salary of (at least) twenty pounds per annum, in consideration whereof all such poor boys as can conveniently frequent it may be taught gratis, but the more able sort of neighbors may pay for their children's teaching as if the school was not free, for they will find it no small advantage to have such a school amongst them.

Such a yearly stipend and convenient dwelling, with a liberty to take young children to board, and to make what advantage he can best by other scholars, will invite a man of good parts to undertake the charge, and excite him to the diligent and constant performance of his duty, especially if he be chosen into the place by three or four honest and discreet trustees, that may have power also to remove him thence, if by his uncivil behavior or gross neglect he render himself incapable to perform so necessary a service to the church and commonwealth.

As for the qualifications of one that is to be the teacher of a Petty School, I would have him to be a person of a pious, sober, comely and discreet behavior, and tenderly affectionate toward children, having some knowledge of the Latin tongue, and ability to write a fair hand and good skill in arithmetic, and then let him move within the compass of his own orb so as to teach all his scholars (as they become capable) to read English very well, and afterward to write and cast accounts. And let him not meddle at all with teaching the *Accidents*, except only to some more pregnant wits which are intended to be set forward to learn Latin, and for such be sure that he ground them well, or else dismiss them, as soon as they can read distinctly and write legibly, to the grammar school.

I should here have closed my discourse, and shut up this Petty School, were it not that I have received a model for the maintaining of students from a worthy friend's hand, (and one that is most zealously and charitably addicted to advance learning, and to help it in its very beginning to come forward to its

full rise,) by which I am encouraged to address my remaining words to the godly-minded trustees and subscribers for so good a work, (especially to those amongst them that know me and my school endeavors;) and this I humbly request of them, that as they have happily contrived a model for the education of students, and brought it on a sudden to a great degree of perfection, so they should also put to their hands for the improvement of school learning, without which such choice abilities as they aim at in order to the ministry can not possibly be obtained. And for the first foundation of such a work, I presume to offer my advice, that in some convenient places, within and without the city, there may be Petty Schools erected, according to the number of wards, unto which certain poor children out of every parish may be sent and taught gratis, and all others that please to send their children thither may have them taught, at a reasonable rate, and be sure to have them improved to the utmost of what they are capable. And I am the rather induced to propound such a thing because that late eminent, Dr. Bathurst, lately deceased, Mr. Gouge, and some others yet living did, out of their own good affection to learning, endeavor at their own charge to promote the like.

#### VII.—Of the discipline of a Petty School.

The sweet and orderly behavior of children addeth more credit to a school than due and constant teaching, because this speaketh to every one that the child is well taught, though (perhaps) he learn but little, and good manners indeed are a main part of good education. I shall therefore take occasion to speak somewhat concerning the discipline of a Petty School, leaving the further discourse of children's manners to books that treat purposely of that subject, as *Erasmus de moribus*, *Youth's Behavior*, &c.

1. Let every scholar repair to school before eight o'clock in the morning, or in case of weakness before nine; and let him come fairly washed, neatly combed, and handsomely clad, and by commending his cleanness, and showing it to his fellows, make him take pleasure betimes of himself to go neat and comely in his clothes.

2. Let such as come before school-time take liberty to recreate themselves about the school, yet so as not to be suffered to do any thing whereby to harm themselves or school-fellows, or to give offence or make disturbance with any neighbor.

3. When school-time is called, let them all go orderly to their own places, and here apply themselves diligently to their books without noise or running about.

4. When the master cometh into the school, let them stand up and make obeisance, (so likewise when any stranger cometh in;) and after notice is taken of those who are absent, let one that is most able read a chapter, and the rest attend and give some little account of what they have heard read. Then let him that read say a short prayer fitted for the school, and afterward let every one settle to his present task.

5. The whole school may not unfitly be divided into four forms, whereof the first and lowest should be of those that learn to know their letters, whose lessons may be in the *Primer*; the second, of those that learn to spell, whose lessons may be in the *Single Psalter*; the third, of those that learn to read, whose lessons may be in the Bible; the fourth, of those that are exercised in reading, writing, and casting accounts, whose lessons may be in such profitable English books as the parents can best provide and the master think fittest to be taught.

6. Let the lessons be the same to each boy in every form, and let the master proportion them to the meanest capacities; thus those that are abler may profit themselves by helping their weaker fellows, and those that are weaker be encouraged to see that they can keep company with the stronger. And let the two highest in every form give notice to the master when they come to say it, of those that were most negligent in getting the lesson.

7. When they come to say it, let them all stand orderly in one or two rows, and whilst one sayeth his lesson, be sure that all the rest look upon their books, and give liberty to him that is next to correct him that is saying it if he mistake; and in case he can say it better, let him take his place and keep it till the same boy or another win it from him. The striving for places (especially) amongst little ones will whet them on to more diligence than any encouragement that can be given them; and the master should be very sparing to whip any one for his book except he be sullenly negligent, and then also I would choose rather to shame him out of his untowardness by commending some of his fellows, and asking him why he can not do as well as they, than by falling upon him with rating words or injurious blows. A great care also must be had that those children that are slow-witted and of a tender spirit be not any way discouraged, though they can not make so good a performance of their task as the rest of their fellows.

8. On Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays they may say two lessons in the forenoon and two in the afternoon, and on Tuesdays and Thursdays in the forenoon they may also say two lessons; but on Tuesdays and Thursdays in the afternoon and on Saturday mornings I would have the time spent in examining and directing them how to spell and read aright, and hearing them say the graces, prayers and psalms, and especially the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, and the Ten Commandments, (which are for that purpose set down in the *New Primer*) very perfectly by heart. And those that can say these well may proceed to get other catechisms, but be sure they be such as agree with the principles of Christian religion.

9. Their lessons being all said, they should be dismissed about eleven o'clock, and then care must be taken that they every one go orderly out of the school, and pass quietly home without any stay by the way. And to prevent that too common clamor and crowding out of the school door, let them rise out of their places one by one with their hat and book in their hand, and make their honors to their master as they pass before his face, one following another at a distance out of the school. It were fittest and safest that the least went out the foremost, that the bigger boys following may give notice of any misdemeanor upon the way.

10. The return to school in the afternoon should be by one o'clock, and those that come before that hour should be permitted to play within the bounds till the clock strike one, and then let them all take their places in due order, and say their lessons as they did in the forenoon. After their lessons are ended, let one read a chapter and say a prayer, and so let them again go orderly and quietly home, about five o'clock in the summer and four in the winter season.

11. If necessity require any one to go out in the school-time, let him not interrupt the master by asking him for leave, but let him leave his book with the next fellow above him for fear he should else spoil or lose it, and in case he tarry too long forth, let notice be given to the monitor.

12 Those children in the upper form may be monitors, every one a day in



his turn; and let them every evening, after all the lessons are said, give a bill to the master of their names that are absent, and theirs that have committed any disorder, and let him be very moderate in correcting, and be sure to make a difference betwixt those faults that are viciously enormous and those that are but childish transgressions. Where admonitions readily take place, it is a needless trouble to use a rod, and as for a ferule I wish it were utterly banished out of all schools.

If any one, before I conclude, should ask me, how many children I think may be well and profitably taught (according to the method already proposed) in a Petty School? I return him answer, that I conceive forty boys will be enough to thoroughly employ one man to hear every one so often as is required; and so many he may hear and benefit himself without making use of any of his scholars to teach the rest, which however may be permitted and is practiced in some schools, yet it occasioneth too much noise and disorder, and is no whit so acceptable to parents or pleasing to the children, be the work never so well done. And therefore I advise, that in a place where a great concourse of children may be had, there be more masters than one employed according to the spaciousness of the room and the number of boys to be taught, so that every forty scholars may have one to teach them; and in case there be boys enough to be taught, I would appoint one single master to attend one single form, and have as many masters as there are forms, and then the work of teaching little ones to the height of their best improvement may be thoroughly done, especially if there were a writing-master employed at certain hours in the school, and an experienced teacher encouraged as a supervisor, or inspector, to see that the whole school be well and orderly taught and disciplined.

What I have here written concerning the teaching and ordering of a Petty School was in many particulars experienced by myself with a few little boys that I taught amongst my grammar scholars in London, and I know those of eminent worth and great learning that, upon trial made upon their own children at home and others at school, are ready to attest the ease and benefit of this method; insomuch as I was resolved to have adjoined a Petty School to my grammar school at the Token House in Lothbury, London, and there to have proceeded in this familiar and pleasing way of teaching, had I not been unhandsomely dealt with by those whom it concerned, for their own profit's sake, to have given me less discouragement. Nevertheless, I think it my duty to promote learning what I can, and to lay a sure foundation for such a goodly structure as learning is; and though (perhaps) I may never be able to effect what I desire for its advancement, yet it will be my comfort to have imparted somewhat to others that may help thereunto. I have here begun at the very groundwork, intending (by God's blessing) forthwith to publish *The New Discovery of the Old Art of Teaching*, which doth properly belong to a grammar school.

In the meantime I entreat those into whose hands this little work may come to look upon it with a single eye, and whether they like or dislike it, to think that it is not unnecessary for men of greatest parts to bestow a sheet or two at leisure time upon so mean a subject as this seems to be. And that God which causeth immense rivers to flow from small spring-heads, vouchsafe to bless these weak beginnings in tender age, that good learning may proceed hence to its full perfection in riper years.

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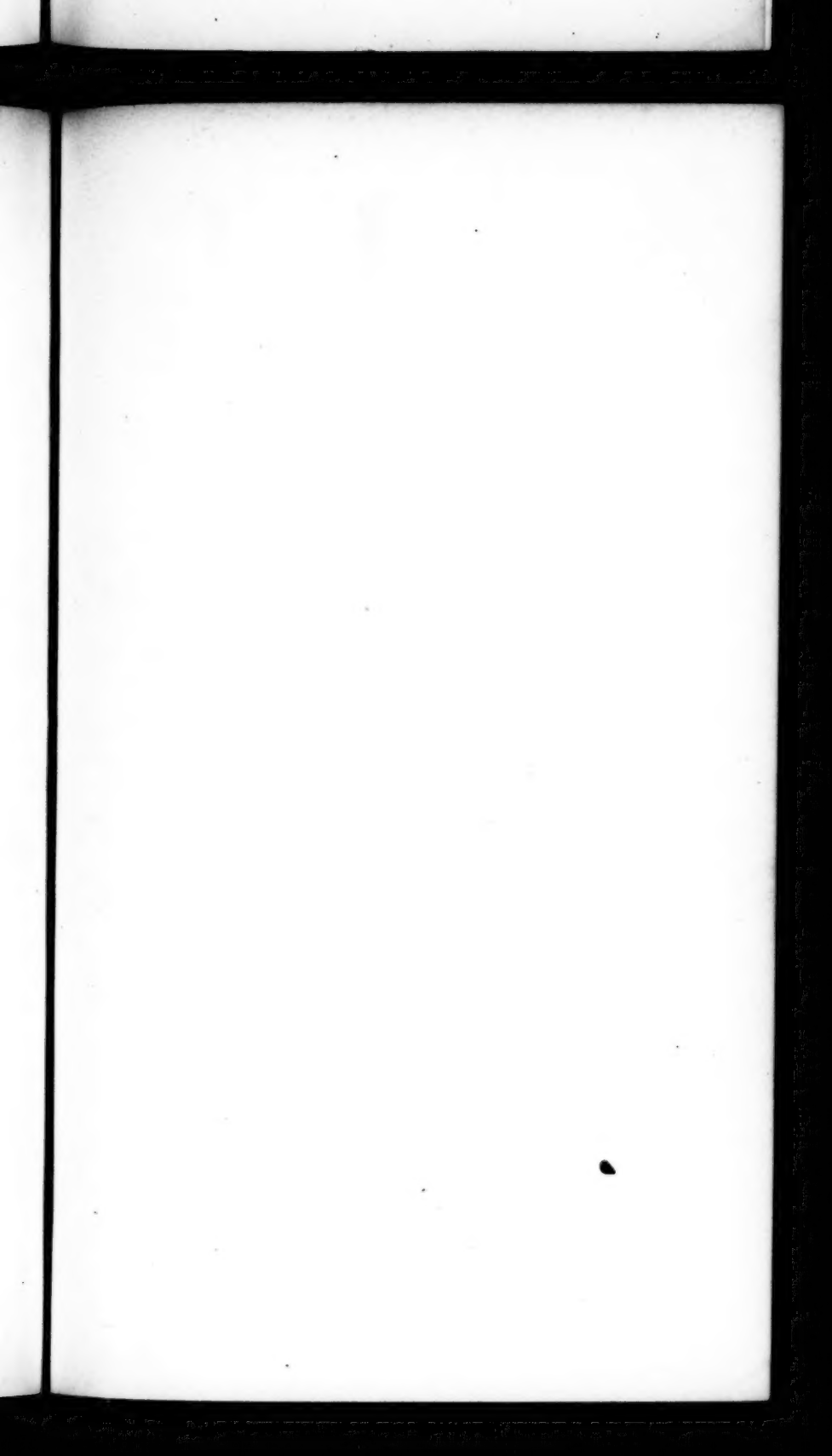
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